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ABSTRACT

Part V of the proceedings consists of eight presentations. They are: "Principle and Practice in Syllabus Design: A Syllabus of Spoken English for Lawyers" (Richard Mead); "Using New Technology for Technology Transfer: ESP for Operations and Maintenance Personnel" (Allene G. Grognet and JoAnn Crandall); "A Description of a Course in English for Business for the Academic ESL Student" (Martha A. Adler); "Graduate Level ESL for Business: What and How" (JoAnn Aebersold and Cathy Day); "Language Practice Seminar for Business Professionals" (Joyce Gilmour Zuck and Louis Victor Zuck); "Deep Supper: A Rationale for the Methodology and Shape of an Intensive Course in Spoken English for Malay-Speaking Executives in Banking, Commerce and Public Administration" (David Hall); "Suggested Topics and Activity Types in Business English for Foreign Students" (Kantatip Sinhaneti); and "Positive and Negative Terms in English" (James L. Sherman). (MSE)

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE 1984 IMU CONFERENCE ON FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART V:

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE FOR BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

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PRINCIPLE AND PRACTICE IN SYLLABUS DESIGN: A SYLLABUS OF SPOKEN ENGLISH FOR LAWYERS

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PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE IN SYLLABUS DESIGN.

The paper is concerned with the formulation of principles for designing and writing a syllabus of language teaching materials, and their practical application. The argument is supported by illustrations taken from a spoken legal English course, designed and written as part of the British Council-Universiti Malaya Spoken English Project (UMSEP) by the author and a small team of Universiti Malaya language teachers.[1] Part One deals with the theoretical basis. Part Two examines one aspect of the application made of this theoretical basis. The Appendices provide a number of illustrations taken from the pre-publication draft of the UMSEP Law course.

PART ONE: THE THEORETICAL BASIS

The design of a language syllabus should be determined not only by a specification of the students' needs but also by a coherent statement of principles expressing the methodological and theoretical inputs. The relationship between the specification of needs and the statements of principles is close and two-way; the principles play a part in determining the organization and application of the needs analysis. Hence, the particular principles relevant to one context may be only marginally applicable to some other.[2]

The aim of the UMSEP Law course was to provide the language skills necessary for third year law students and professionals to produce and interpret spoken legal English in professional settings.[3] The course was originally planned to focus on the needs of magistrates; a great proportion of University of Malaya law students are bonded to the government legal service, and subsequently enter the profession as magistrates. However, our preliminary analysis of the target language showed that the spoken English skills employed by practising magistrates are sometimes minimal; we observed one case in which the magistrate conducted proceedings only by eye movement and occasional sotto voce Malay directions to the court clerk. It became apparent that the skills required by magistrates are also required by counsel, but counsel must do more. Besides participating in complex courtroom interactions, he needs to use spoken English out of court when interviewing and counselling a client in his office or negotiating with another law. And so the course increasingly encompassed the needs of counsel, and dealt explicitly with the needs of the magistrate only when these were not shared by counsel.

In law the relationship between the use of language and its content is unusually close. Distinguishing between linguistic and forensic skills posed problems for the language teacher, who might not always have the expertise necessary to teach when a particular linguistic skill was appropriate to a particular legal activity. For instance, the course taught the forms by which leading questions are realised and showed the student how to produce leading questions and distinguish them from other

types of closed questions. But leading questions are only permitted under certain circumstances. Teaching when leading questions are permitted is a responsibility of the law teacher and not of the language teacher.

The course taught enabling skills. This notion may be explained by considering the analogy of water polo. The swimming instructor teaches the learner how to swim and how to make a variety of different strokes. These are enabling skills. He does not teach the rules of water polo, or techniques of winning, or tactics for using one particular stroke most effectively at a certain point in the play. These aspects are covered by the specialised water-polo instructor who assumes that his learner already knows how to swim. And the enabling skills were necessarily selected for relevance. The course aimed to teach those linguistic skills that the student should be able to master if he were to become a successful Lawyer, and ignored those might be useful to other professionals but not to the Lawyer.

We adopted the general strategy of building from the abstract to the concrete. We initially planned in terms of unit length, the component parts and their goals, and the relationships between them. From these we derived the specifications for the units and activities, and hence specifications of rubrics and necessary data inputs.

To take an example. We plan to write units each of six hours teaching time and each consisting of Interactive Activities for which the necessary grammatical and discourse inputs are

provided by Support Activities. Each Support Activity will teach forms and strategies that the student should attempt to employ in the Interactive activities, and which he would use to assess his and his partners' success in achieving the goals of the Interactive Activities. Let us now assume that needs analysis indicates we should write a unit teaching tactics for demanding and making concessions. An Interactive Activity is first specified in terms of participants, Student A and Student B, representing different interests; and a goal, the achievement of a mutually satisfactory conclusion. This might be very simply realised by a negotiation problem in which Student A represents a client who is prepared to pay alimony of $X on condition that he is permitted access to the child once a week and Student B represents a client who demands alimony of $2X and is only willing to give access once a fortnight. This specification generates a possible specification for Support Activities; discourse and grammatical forms for demanding and making concessions. Relations might include 'If you agree to Y, my client will Z'; 'I can't accept Y unless you Z'; 'We will agree to Y but only because Z'.

The alternative would have been to work from concrete to abstract. This might be characterized as searching out a likely text input, writing activities that taught from the text, and formulating a theoretical justification to account for the relationship between text and activities. Then beginning again by looking for a new text input. This seemed to us to be uneconomical in terms of both time and effort.

The design model we adopted of working from the abstract to the concrete may be indicated as follows.

TABLE 1. p. 38

Extra levels might, of course, be added to this hierarchy, but five are sufficient for most practical purposes. We are particularly concerned here with level 2: Principles applied in the syllabus design.

This model relating abstract principle and concrete practice has the advantages first that it provides a rationale for taking and implementing decisions, and second, it provides a record of why decisions were taken (which the concrete-abstract model does not). Hence, when the need to evaluate the course, or to revise materials arises, tracing back a flaw in the realisation to the original decision from which it was generated is relatively straight forward. For instance, classroom practice (level 5) may indicate that a particular activity needs rewriting. If corrections at Level 4 do not solve the problem, then the syllabus design (Level 3) must be re-examined. When changes are made at any one level, then the basic model reasserts itself: for instance, revision at Level 3 generates change at Level 2, and this leads to new classroom practice.

To this extent the model is circular, and reflects the unstable relationship between theory and practice and the degree to which our craft is influenced by pragmatic considerations. Nevertheless, this tendancy only modifies and does not substantially contradict

the dominant process.

TABLE 2. p. 39

We have already seen one example of how this model was used; the difficulties we encountered in designing a syllabus directed solely to magistrates led us to retrace our steps and redefine the objectives of the syllabus. This indicates that at the early stages even initial perceptions of needs may have to be modified. In practice, of course, experience tends to lead to a gradual 'hardening' at the higher levels, and the process of revision is increasingly restricted to the lower levels. Further examples are given in Part Two.

PART TWO: APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLES TO THE SYLLABUS DESIGN.

The remainder of this paper deals with the principles we derived from our specification of the purpose of the syllabus at Level 1, and their application at Levels 3-5.

Space does not permit a lengthy discussion of needs analysis (see Mead (1982) for a review of one attempt to apply psycho-social functional analysis to needs analysis). Part One has indicated the scope of the investigation made of the relevant social settings, and the salient points of our analysis of language needs, from which the principles were derived, may be very briefly summarized. The student needed the language skills appropriate to interacting in this range of social settings. He needed to develop those skills that

a) activated and further developed the grammatical resources with which he had been equipped by his school English education and first two years of University English

b) exposed him to examples of authentic spoken legal English used in appropriate language contexts

c) exposed him to notions of communicative appropriacy and efficacy

d) trained him to use spoken legal English appropriately and effectively

e) developed his confidence.

The derived principles with which the paper is mainly concerned are listed here and discussed in detail below

1. The course should teach interactive skills within interactive contexts.
2. The course should be organized according to linguistic principles.
3. The course should be based upon an input of linguistic data.
4. The ordering of Units should be rule-governed.

1. <u>The course should teach interactive skills within interactive contexts</u>.

This was applied at all levels of syllabus organization. The 21 unit course was divided into 3 stages.

Stage 1: <u>Establishing Information</u>. Units 1-10. (Each unit seven hours teaching time.)

e.g. Unit 4: Eliciting Relevant Information.

Unit 10: Correcting Unsatisfactory Replies.

Stage 2: Using Information to Develop an Argument. Units 11-16. (Each unit five hours teaching time.)

e.g. Unit 13: Explaining Alternatives.

Unit 15: Making and Demanding Concessions.

Stage 3: Arguing in Legal Situations. Units 17-21. (Each unit five hours teaching time.)

e.g. Unit 18: Negotiating with Another Lawyer.

Unit 21: Cross-Examining a Witness.

As we have noted in each unit a primary distinction was made between Support Activities and Interactive Activities. The Support Activities practised the discourse and (in Units 1-10) grammatical resources necessary to perform the function identified by the unit specification. Support Activities were relatively tightly structured and teacher controlled. Input came from recorded fragments and short written texts. For example, see the fragment from Activity 1 of Unit 5: Sequencing Information; in Appendix A.

The Interactive Activities gave interactive practice in the unit function. For example, see the fragment from Activity 4 of Unit 18: Negotiating with Another Lawyer; in Appendix B.

Ideally, the goal of an Interactive Activity should be related to the student's experience and awareness of his needs. Certainly we wished to avoid simulations of the type that asked him to adopt a personality that was foreign to his own emotional and intellectual experience. We know of one business role-play activity that required one learner to play the part of a bank

manager refusing a loan and a second to play a hysterical housewife: a professional exercise for the former, but for the latter an excursion into dramatic art that could easily embarrass and inhibit. In practice, we reached a compromise, both because 'authentic' goal-oriented activities are notoriously difficult to write (for one attempt, see Appendix C), and partly because law students encounter a range of restricted role-play activities in their professional training (moot trials, mock trials) and recognize this form of activity as authentic at least to their experiences as students.

Interactive Activities placed emphasis on the outcome of an interaction, and paid considerable attention to the formulation of goals. We wished to avoid activities in which the development and conclusion of the interaction was determined only by the participants' sense (or lack) of motivation, and which placed most emphasis on the correct realisation of specified linguistic features. We wished to devise problems that demanded the application of the students' linguistic resources to achieving non-linguistic goals, and which had to be solved by using language. A distinction was drawn between solving problem about language and solving problems with language; the former might be of value in Support Activities, but should be otherwise avoided unless they also made heavy demands on language use and appropriate application.

The Interactive Activity was problem solving in the sense that a goal could be formulated in advance and when the goal had

been achieved the problem was completed. The difficulty lay in specifying the goal and the paths by which it should be reached, without imposing over much structure. An over structured Interactive Activity limited the opportunities for creative interaction and tended to resemble a resource-oriented Support Activity. At the same time, some structuring was necessary. The paths to reaching the goal were intended to reflect the functional concern of the Unit specification, and the ostensive goal had to be made explicit in the organizational constraints--for instance when one participant had discovered hidden information before the other or had reached a higher score, or when both participants were satisfied with the outcome to a negotiation. The information necessary to solve the problem was distributed in a variety of ways; participants might have to make a fit between items that complemented each other or were in part contradictory. They might be competing to discover items, or to prevent discovery. Information might have to be inferred, or applied from some earlier activity. In order that the problem could be resolved, there had to be impossible, or highly improbable solutions. Problems could then be distinguished in terms of those that had only one possible solution, and those that had a number of possible solutions of equal validity, and those that had a number of possible solutions of unequal validity.

The emphasis on interactive teaching had implications for the degree of responsibility the students were given for organising their own learning processes. Students were increasingly obliged

to decide for themselves on the strategies they reached for achieving their interactive goal within the given constraints. They were given progressively greater responsibility for assessing their own progress (see Appendix B and Appendix D). This progression was used as rudimentary means of grading the material and activity types and is discussed under 4c below.

2. The course should be organized according to linguistic principles.

When we began to search for a notion of linguistic or conceptual principles by which the Support to each unit should be organized, we considered the following alternatives.

a) grammatical categories.

b) formal discourse categories.

c) functional categories.

All three alternatives posed problems.

a) Grammatical categories: We aimed to teach the ability to participate in extended verbal interactions, and we took it as an article of faith that control of grammatical code did not guarantee interactive skills. Our initial syllabus plans did not include any work on grammar. But the extent to which fluency could be achieved without accuracy was an issue which could not be evaded, and continued to dog us. Two factors led us to include grammatical activities. Early piloting showed that students tended to equate language learning with formal practice, and were more ready to accept the student-centred Interactional Activities on which the course placed most

emphasis when there were 'legitimized' by a context of more traditional language learning activities. Secondly some students showed a real need for remedial formal practice at a lower intermediate level. Hence, classroom practice led to a modification of our perception of needs and to changes in the application made at lower levels in the design model.

An early draft of the course included two optional Grammar Activities among the Support Activities to each of the first ten Units (Stage 1). These taught grammatical categories that teachers and students perceived to cause particular difficulty, and which most obscured communicative clarity. Of each category only one or two exponents which seemed to provide adequate 'cover' for productive purposes were presented overty. The examples of realisations came from dialogues on which the students had already worked in Activity 1 of the Unit. A fragment from an optional grammar activity is given in Appendix D. However, this subsidiary grammatical syllabus never determined the overall course syllabus.

b) Formal discourse categories: We were immediately sympathetic to the notion of a discourse basis. But we encountered problems. First, there were no studies of courtroom discourse then available, and the categories used in studies of classroom discourse, for instance by Sinclair and Couthard (1975), were not immediately applicable. Secondly, the two smallest units in Sinclair and Coulthard's model, the act and the move, are not interactive and can only be usefully taught within the context of larger discourse

units (the exchange, sequence, transaction). Thirdly their analytical model was not immediately accessible to pedagogic grading. We clearly needed a secondary system of organisation if we were going to exploit these categories on any formal basis.

Exchanges might be subcategorised in terms of reciprocal/ non-reciprocal relationships between the syntactic forms of different initiation and response moves. For instance, an exchange in which a yes/no question form elicits a yes/no response is reciprocal; a declarative form that elicits a yes/no response ('You then went to the market?'- 'yes I did') or a yes/no question form that elicits a wh- response ('Can you tell the court your name?' - 'Ahmad bin Musa') is non-reciprocal. However, some further categorisation of discourse units above the level of the exchange always seemed necessary. And we did not have a system of analysis for formally differentiating sequence boundaries and categorising sequences (even if such a system could be applied in the form of teachable materials).

In practice, we tended to teach grammar within the context of the discourse move or exchange (see Appendix D), the function of the discourse exchange within the context of a sequence of exchanges, and the function of a sequence within a larger context. The Stage 3 Units placed relatively greater emphasis on extended discourse interactions. But we never formed a satisfactory formula for systematically ordering a discourse syllabus. As it developed, discourse rules were taught within the context of functional categories.

c) Functional categories: A number of problems arose in applying functional (or communicative, notional, rhetorical, etc) models

i) A functional label is employed by the analyst as a means of categorizing items of language which realise similar meanings. But the learner must understand the meanings of the separate items (some or all) before he can deduce the meaning of the superordinate functional label. Functional labels provide a useful tool for interpreting given fragments of language, but do not necessarily serve to generate new language.

ii) Linguists are more or less agreed on the meanings and scope of grammatical categories. But this is not the case with functional categories. Furthermore, their meanings are unstable in different contexts, and even when the learner understands the meanings of the subordinate realisations, the functional label may have different social connotations in his first language and that of his teacher when these are not the same.

iii) Functional categories cannot be directly derived from analysis of grammatical systems or of formal discourse functions (initiations, response, follow-up). No one-to-one correspondence can be found between syntactic form and function. The derivation and application of a set of functional categories is thus very much a matter of intuition. For instance, a unit of language might be posited which corresponds

to the minimal unit of function (e.g. a function is realised by the sentence and every new sentence realises a new function). This would give all functional categories the same equivalence. Alternatively, a superordinate functional category might be assumed from which all other functional categories are derived. The applied linguist cannot appeal to convention in making his decision.

iv) Language functions cannot be directly derived from sociological categories. Fragments of language might be found to corroborate the use of such labels at feminist, chauvinist, capitalist, etc. but these are not linguistic categories.

By eschewing sociological categorisation as a basis we might appear to have been betraying the essentially socio-functional objective of the syllabus - to train lawyers. But it has to be remembered that our emphasis lay on teaching enabling skills rather than professional skills. A methodology had to be found for teaching skills that could be applied to specific sociological activities without teaching the activities themselves - which were the responsibilities of the content teachers. This is a perennial problem in ESP work and should not be underestimated. The line is obviously very fine - particularly in law, where forensic skills largely correspond to the efficient use of language - and Appendix C suggests that on occasion the line was crossed.

These difficulties not withstanding, soem type of functional categorisation seemed necessary as an organising principle. The following conventions were applied

a) Functional categories should reflect strategic purposes.

b) Functional categories should be paraphrased in simple language that could be understood and agreed by teachers and students. In practice this meant that each unit was introduced with an explanation of the title.

c) Functional categories should be presented and illustrated in the context of data (see Appendix A).

3. The course should be based upon an input of linguistic data. Linguistic data were exploited at Level 1 in the needs analysis and specifying target performance, at Level 2 in checking the pertinence of the Syllabus Principles, at Level 3 in formulating the descriptive categories upon which the syllabus was based, and at Level 4 as models in Support Activities. An example of the latter use is given in Appendix A, 2 and 3, which shows the relationship between a fragment of authentic data and its application in edited form.

The collection and exploitation of spoken courtroom data presented its own problems. We needed as much authentic data of as high a quality as possible. But difficulty in obtaining permission to made audio recordings, and then on the rare occasions that this was granted, the inconvenience of setting up equipment in the courtroom, noisy surroundings and indistinct recordings forced us to rely on a system of team transcriptions of proceedings in progress. These were later edited and re-recorded. Of less

value were professionals' intuitions of how they had used language in specific situations. Of least value were professionals' intuitions of how they used language in general when fulfilling their professional roles. We did not attempt to write scripts of what we thought would happen in a given situation and derive categories from these unless we could support our intuitions by fragments of data or the advice of professionals.

Further problems arose in adapting fragments of data to materials without violating their authenticity. Ideally, editing should be minimal. But the authentic language contained complexities, references and linguistic errors that the teacher would not wish to spend time explaining in the classroom. Data do not necessarily constitute a prescriptive model of student needs, and may reveal features of inappropriate discourse that should not be taught. To take an extreme example, the magistrate who relied upon eye movements has been noted. Our students would obviously need to contribute more than paralinguistic gestures, even though eye movement might on occasion be sufficient. In practice, the extent and manner of data editing was decided by the exigencies of the context of material, our experience of classroom practice with these particular students, and advice given by academic advisors in the Faculty of Law.

4. <u>The ordering of Units should be rule-governed</u>.

In other words, there should be a prefered and non-random order in which the 21 Units are best taught.

The superordinate ordering of Units in three stages is noted in

Section 1 above. Within each stage, three criteria were applied.

a. Ordering determined by difficulty.

b. Ordering determined by the degree of responsibility given to the student.

a. Ordering determined by the inherent qualitites of the function: The problems that arise when the applied linguist attempts to derive a syllabus of functional categories have been discussed above. Similar problems occur in grading functional categories. A grammatical syllabus will conventionally teach past before future form and both before the various conditionals. Except in a few isolated cases (for example, Unit 1: Establishing Basic Information; Unit 2: Eliciting Precise Information; Unit 20: Examining a Witness; Unit 21: Cross-examining a Witness) we were not able to appeal to similar conventions of a 'natural' ordering of functional categories.

b. Ordering determined by functional difficulty: The present state of linguistic research does not enable the applied linguist to distinguish more or less inherently complex functions, or to associate learning difficulty with degrees of discourse complexity. On the other hand, difficulty can be treated as a characteristic of syllabus organisations. Functions presented in the later units were defined and taught in terms that assumed that the student had mastered earlier functions. Because the material tended to be student centred, the student's recognition of a'good solution' was heavily determined by his own developing sense of appropriacy. He would not find it impossible or valueless

to start with a later unit and work backwards through the course but if he followed the order given, his learning would be considerably more efficient.

c. Ordering determined by the degree of responsibility given to the student.

Students were given increasing responsibility for creating their own data and deciding how to use them in order to achieve the goals specified by the Interactive Activities. For example, note the fragment given in Appendix B. An Activity type might be introduced in an earlier unit in a simple form with considerable 'propping' by explanatory rubrics, then reintroduced at later stages in a more complex form. And more complex Activity types were introduced later. This ordering influenced the overall organisation of the course and ordering of the functions insofar as a particular Activity type seemed best fitted to exploiting a particular function.

Finally, no single one of the criteria described above was decisive in determinig the ordering of the syllabus. All were applied at different points, and where they seemed to contradict each other, pragmatism usually determined the issue.

Three other principles that influenced the organisation and realisation of the syllabus should be briefly mentioned. Firstly, the Appendices demonstrate the emphasis given to the standardization of lay-out and rubrics, and attention need only be drawn to the boxes in the left hand margins, indicating the number of participants required by each task. This standardization

affected the design of materials insofar as it created a model for activity organization. Activities which did not fit the model had to be either scrapped or modified. The danger was always that too great an emphasis on standardization might lead to an unnecessary narrowing in the range of activity types. In practice, detailed standardization most affected the later stages of materials editing. Secondly, the importance of piloting has been made clear in the discussion. In the event we succeeded in piloting approximately 90% of all material at least once, and some activities and units up to three times. All activity types were piloted. Thirdly, all material was accompanied by teacher's notes. These introduced the course and the student-centered approach taken, and discussed the implications for classroom methodology Each activity was described in terms of its specific aim, timing, place in the student's book, material required and student relationships. The discussion of each activity detailed the teacher's responsibilities for setting it up, monitoring its progress, giving feedback. Where appropriate it gave an answer key.

CONCLUSION

My purpose in writing this paper has been to demonstrate that syllabus organisation should, and can, be rule-governed in the sense that a rationale determines how decisions are taken and implemented.

Part One discussed a theoretical basis for syllabus organisation and introduced the illustrative data. The process of creating and realising a syllabus was described in terms of a first specification of the syllabus objectives and the input of needs analysis, the principles applied in syllabus design, the syllabus design, the production of the materials by which the syllabus is realised, and their use in classroom practice. This was modelled as a progression from abstract to concrete organisation. The advantages of this model over the reverse progression from concrete to abstract were discussed. This reverse progression can be applied in revision and correction, but as a secondary rather than a dominant mode of organisation.

Part Two illustrated the argument by examining four principles applied to the development of the illustrative data. The theoretical and practical problems that arose in applying the principles were examined in detail.

Footnotes:

1. Ms Cecelia Fredericks, Ms Cecelia Goon, Ms Ng Kwai Kuen, Ms Diana Tan.
2. In Mead et al, the same relationship between needs analysis, principles and syllabus design is discussed in the context of a study-skills program written for Thai MBA students. A different notion of needs analysis and a different set of principles apply.
3. At the time that the syllabus was designed, English was to all intents and purposes the language of the courts. Since October 1981, the essentially English Common Law system has been increasingly practised in Malay.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A.

1. From Unit 5: SEQUENCING INFORMATION

Activity 1. Recognizing different ways of sequencing.

. . . .

TASK 2

Tape

1. Listen to the tape.
2. Complete the transcriptions below.
3. Answer the questions below each transcription.

1.

Counsel:	Now, while you were at work at three o'clock on the 20 March, what happened?
Witness:	I received a phone call from my neighbours.
Counsel:	And _____?
Witness:	They gave me some bad news. They said someone had broken into my house.
Counsel:	Someone had broken in.
Witness:	. . . .

(a) What happened before the witness received the telephone call?

(b) In what sequence does counsel elicit the story?

(i) In a strict chronological sequence;

(ii) In the order of importance, eliciting the most exciting event first;

(iii) In the sequence in which the witness experienced the events.

(c) Compare this dialogue to the written text in Task 1. Why do the speakers follow a chronological sequence more closely than does the writer?

(i) Because they wish to give the most exciting information first;

(ii) Because they wish to give the most important information last;

(iii) Because this is the sequence in which the witness experienced the events that occurred.

2. From Unit 7: INTRODUCING A NEW TOPIC

Activity 1. Recognizing the meaning of prefaces to questions.

TASK 1

Tape

1. Listen to the three short dialogues on the tape.
2. Complete the transcriptions below.
3. Answer the question below each transcription.

(i) . . . .

(ii)

Counsel: Did the eight accused assault you with any reason?

Witness: They said it was because I tried to run away.

* Counsel: _____

* fifteen people attacked

* you, but you can only

* identify eight. Why can't you identify more than eight?

Witness: _____

What is the purpose of the preface given in the asterisked lines?

(a) To introduce documentary evidence.

(b) To introduce a new topic.

(c) To refer to evidence given previously by the same witness.

3. Compare the text of 2 above to the fragment of data on which it was modelled.

Counsel : Did they attack without any prior notice?

Interpreter: Reason?

Counsel : Reason.

(INTERPRETER/WITNESS : MALAY INTERACTION)

Interpreter: Before that I was interrogated because they thought I was about to run away.

(INTERPRETER/WITNESS : MALAY INTERACTION)

They did not send me to the principal, instead they took the law into their own hands.

Magistrate:: Yes.

. . . .

Counsel : You mentioned earlier that there were altogether fifteen, fifteen or twenty people and you can only identify eight?

(INTERPRETER/WITNESS : MALAY INTERACTION)

Interpreter: Yes your honour there were fifteen or twenty but I can only identify eight.

Counsel : Why, why what's the reason you can't identify them?

(INTERPRETER/WITNESS : MALAY INTERACTION)

Interpreter: I can't identify them for the reason
there were too many of them.

(Kuala Kuba Baru Magistrate's Court. 20 March 1981.)

APPENDIX B.

From Unit 18: NEGOTIATING WITH ANOTHER LAWYER

Activity 4: Interaction : Negotiating a sale

TASK 1

1. Student A. Represent a client who wishes to sell a house. The house has two bedrooms, a lounge, dining area, kitchen and bathroom. Use Worksheet 1. Do not show the worksheet to Student B.
2. Student B. Represent a client who wishes to buy a house. Use Worksheet 2. Do not show the worksheet to Student A.
3. Students A and B. Decide on the following:
   (a) the sale price;
   (b) the means of payment;
   (c) the date of payment;
   (d) the date of occupancy.
4. Students C and D. Evaluate the performance of Student A and Student B. Give each student points if he succeeds in expressing the following functions. Write notes of what he says to express them. Then answer the questions given below.

Functions	Student A	Student B
(a) He shows that he is genuinely interested in finding a mutually satisfactory solution.		
(b) He forces the other side to make a concession.		
(c) He justifies a concession he has to make.		
(d) He makes the other side give away damaging information.		
(e) He evades a damaging question.		
(f) He makes a credible threat.		

(i) Did Students A and B agree on a sale price?

_____

(ii) If so, what was the agreed sale price?

_____

(iii) What was the agreed means of payment?

_____

(iv) What was the agreed date of occupancy?

_____

(v) If they did not agree on a sale, why not?

_____

(vi) Which student negotiated most effectively?

_____

TASK 2.

1. Student C. Represent a client who wishes to sell a sundry shop. The shop covers 350 square feet, and has living accommodation above it. The sale of the shop would include stock valued at $6,000. Use Worksheet 3. Do not show the worksheet to Student D.

2. . . . .

APPENDIX C.

From Unit 17: INTERVIEWING A CLIENT

Activity 3. Interaction : structuring an interview

This activity practises structuring an interview.

Yesterday (or on the most recent working day) a car parked outside the Law Faculty library was broken into and robbed. The theft occurred at some time between 8.00 a.m. and 9.00 p.m. (by which time it was dark). The police suspect a number of students. Each student consults a lawyer who helps him prepare his case.

Remember that Activity 1 showed you how the good lawyer often breaks an interview into three stages.

TASK 1

Each student. Prepare short notes of your movements during the day. Try to remember where you were, what you were doing, who you were with, and who might have seen you. Do not show your notes to your partners.

TASK 2

1. Student A. Interview Student B, in order to establish his movements during the day, and to show that he could not have committed the theft. Proceed as follows:
   (a) Encourage Student B to tell his story. Use the expressions you practised in Activity 1.
   (b) Question Student B about details that are still unclear.
   (c) Retell the story to Student B, checking that you have a complete picture of Student B's activities during the day.
2. Student B. Tell your story in your own words, ordering the events as you wish. Use the notes you prepared in Task 1.
3. Student C. Evaluate Student A's performance. Give him a mark between 1-10.
   (a) Give a high mark if Student A breaks the interview into three stages. What does Student A say to introduce each of the three stages?
   The problem identification stage.

   _____

   The review stage.

   _____

   The verification-summary stage.

   _____

(b) Give a high mark if Student A's account of the story in the verification-summary stage is clear and comprehensive.

(c) . . . .

APPENDIX D.

From Unit 10: CORRECTING UNSATISFACTORY REPLIES

Activity 3: Grammar : "or else" and "otherwise"

This activity practises using "or else" and "otherwise".

1. Look at these two exchanges. They come from dialogue 4 in Activity 1. Pay particular attention to the sentences in italics.

(i) Counsel: What were his words?
Witness: He said I had to lie down on the floor, or else he would shoot me in the head.

(ii) Counsel: What did you do?
Witness: I lay down. Otherwise he would have killed me.

"Or else" and "otherwise" both mean "if not" in some sentences. They are used more frequently in informal speech than in formal speech or writing. The witness might also say.

(i) "He said I had to lie down on the floor. If I did not, he would shoot me."

(ii) "I lay down. If I had not, he would have killed me."

Here is another example.

"You should defend yourself, or else you'll go to prison for a long time."

"You should defend yourself, otherwise you'll go to prison for a long time."

"If you don't defend yourself you will go to prison for a long time."

2. Decide which of the following can be rewritten with the words "or else" and "otherwise". Rewrite those that can.

(a) You must pay me my alimony. If you don't, I'll complain to the court.

_____

_____

(b) My client is prepared to settle. If that's not possible, he'll take the case to court.

_____

_____

(c) I'll try to be on time. If I'm late, I'll meet you at the office.

_____

_____

(d) Let's plead guilty. If we don't, we'll go to prison.

_____

3. But be careful! "Else" and "otherwise" do not always mean "if not". Decide what "else" and "otherwise" mean in the following examples.

   (a) Would you like anything else to eat?

   (b) He lost his court case, but otherwise he is happy.

   (c) When all else fails, pray.

4. . . . .

APPENDIX E.

From Unit 15: MAKING AND DEMANDING CONCESSIONS

Activity 3. Assessing your progress

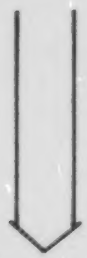
This activity gives you an opportunity to assess your progress.

The aim of this acitivty is to give you an opportunity to check how far you have expanded your range of resources for making and demanding concessions.

1. Look back at your answers to Activity 1.
2. Now add as many new ways as you can of making and demanding these concessions.

TABLE 1.

Abstract

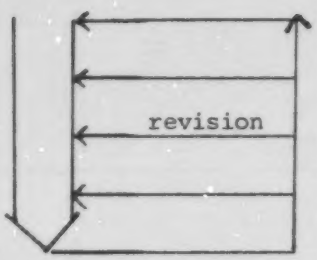


Concrete

1. Syllabus objectives and needs analysis.
2. Principles applied in syllabus design.
3. Syllabus design.
4. Materials production.
5. Classroom practice.

TABLE 2.

Abstract



1. Syllabus objectives and needs analysis.
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5. Classroom practice.

Concrete

USING NEW TECHNOLOGY FOR TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER: ESP FOR OPERATIONS AND MAINTENANCE PERSONNEL

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USING NEW TECHNOLOGY FOR TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER: ESP FOR OPERATIONS AND MAINTENANCE PERSONNEL

When dealing with adult language learning in business and industry, one has the luxury and indeed the requirement to design the teaching program to meet the needs of both the learner and the client. In fact, this needs assessment is the most important part of program development, because it is at this stage that the parameters of the course are investigated and set. Identifying needs places language within a systems approach to language learning, helps to define the learning/teaching situation and sets objectives for course content and methodology. Any needs assessment for business and industry looks at the requirements of both the learner and the client so that expectations of both are built into the program design. The nature and extent of community support systems must also be a part of the assessment scheme. Major questions which need to be considered during the needs analysis stage include:

1. For the Learners

   a. What are their previous experiences with English?

   b. What is the current level of proficiency of each linguistic skill? (Listening/Speaking/Reading/Writing)

   c. What are their attitudes toward the use of English on the job?

   d. What do they perceive as linguistic problems?

   e. What are their learning styles?

   f. How do they have to use English, 1) on the job? 2) socially?

   g. How are linguistic situations ranked as to language use, for instance,

      1) on the telephone or face-to-face

      2) in small groups or one-on-one or presentation

      3) taking directions or giving directions

      4) asking for information or giving information

      5) researching information or writing information?

h. What are the learners' long- and short-term linguistic goals?

i. What languages have they learned? studied?

j. How did they learn these languages? What methods and texts were used?

k. How do they interact with various technologies?

l. What are their previous experiences with English instruction?

m. What do they expect from an English course?

II. For the Client

a. What does the client want the employee to do in English? (Listening/Speaking/Reading/Writing)

b. How does the client rank the linguistic situations?

c. How does the client rank skill needs? (Listening/Speaking/Reading/Writing)

d. What will the client contribute to the learner? (Time, money, material, equipment, teacher, space?)

e. How much will involvement cost the company?

III. For the Larger Community

a. What is the position of and attitude toward English in the country?

b. What resources now exist to meet learner and client needs?

c. What factors are missing in making the learner/client connection?

In doing a needs assessment for business and industry in Indonesia, we asked those questions and others as informal interview protocols, and whenever possible, observed non-native speakers of English grappling with spoken and written English. Our conclusion was that the most pressing unmet area in Indonesia for English instruction was for operations and maintenance personnel in heavy industry who had a basic command of English, but not one sufficient to fulfill their job requirements, and certainly not to be promoted to more responsible positions. Whereas engineers and managers

were usually sent to English-speaking countries for advanced degrees, this second echelon of technical staff was expected to use English on the job without having benefitted from living and studying in and English-speaking environment. Breakdowns frequently occured.

We outlined a course for these technicians which included the following objectives and specific goals.

OBJECTIVES -

To enable technical personnel in mid- and lower-level operations positions to better understand instructions and maintenance and supervisory discussions, and to communicate their needs and ideas.

To improve work-related reading comprehension and writing skills.

SPECIFIC GOALS - To Assist Operations and Maintenance Personnel in:

Participating in an operations or maintenance briefing

Describing a new process

Discussing machinery functioning/malfunctioning

Providing safety training

Working with schedules/diagrams

Participating in staff meetings

Presenting problems orally and in writing

Reading manuals

Reporting on processes

Preparing daily activities reports

Dealing with safety problems or accidents

Socializing

These were objectives which met the needs of both, but we still needed to design an appropriate learning environment. The traditional classroom student-teacher relationship was not possible for several reasons, the most serious being the lack of available native or near-native English speakers to act as models and teachers. We needed some way of providing those models, as well as the specialized English instruction required for these personnel. Clearly technical personnel could benefit from technology use in their language learning.

Figure I illustrates the matrix we used to decide upon the most appropriate technology for use with these learners.

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FIGURE I

	L	S	R	W	Learner Centered	Individualized	Ease of Use	Self Instructional	Teacher Mediated	Flexible	Capable of Feedback	Portable	Production Cost	U C
AUDIO														
RADIO														
VIDEO														
VIDEODISC														
CAI														

We tried several of the technologies with prospective students and discussed others with them and with language teachers. We concluded that an interactive, computer-controlled videodisc with a touch screen and a remote audio linkage would best serve these learners.

The program could:

- be teacher-assisted or self-instructional
- provide native speaking models, speaking a number of varieties of English (British, American, Australian, etc.)
- provide clear examples of language being used in real situations
- allow students to make mistakes without feeling embarrassed
- be used by different types of learners
- teach specific skills or uses of language
- be flexible in content
- allow learner to control own rate and timing of learning
- be infinitely patient!

PROGRAM COMPONENTS

The main body of the program is on the videodisc. Incidents in the work life of an Indonesian technician and his colleagues are presented and analyzed functionally and linguistically. These incidents are used to stimulate controlled and open English practice. The disc also contains a menu, providing the student with sources of additional help.

In addition, a computer-controlled remote audio cassette provides additional audio input and practice in both listening and speaking. The cassettes also carry explanations of grammar and usage.

A student workbook, with accompanying audio cassettes, are also part of the package, to be used by the student at home. The material parallels that given

on the videodisc, with scripts, presentations of language functions and grammatical explanations, and provides additional activities such as drills to be completed at home and self-assessment exercises.

Because the videodisc program can be used either alone or in an instructional setting, the program also includes a teacher's guide which contains pedagogical notes for using the system and developing it for classroom activities.

INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN

The program is organized around a variety of language functions which are important to mid-level maintenance and operations personnel in public works, petrochemical, and other heavy industries. These functions include such social language functions as greeting, apologizing, thanking, inviting, refusing, and taking leave, and such job-related industrial language uses such as clarifying, verifying, requesting help, offering help, explaining, speculating, comparing, following instructions, taking messages, leaving messages, and following instructions.

The course is organized into three units of five lessons each, dealing with one important piece of equipment which must be installed, operated and maintained. The equipment--a pump, a drill, and a power source--serve to unify the story. However, the lessons can be studied in a free order, since the units are modular and self-contained. All grammar and vocabulary are contained within the lesson, or are easily accessible from another lesson on the disc.

All four skills--listening, speaking, reading, and writing--are addressed, with the heaviest emphasis upon listening and reading: the two areas where mid-level management in industrial jobs have the greatest need for English

and the greatest difficulty. There is some speaking practice, however, with the videodisc and the additional audio cassettes and some writing practice, as it is relevant, for example, in placing an order, explaining a new procedure, or reminding employees of a safety problem.

THE CHARACTERS AND STORYLINE

The program centers around the activities of an Indonesian technician, who is in his late twenties and has worked for a Petroleum Company for 5 years. He has a high school diploma, plus 3 years of rather theoretical training at a technical college. He studied English for 3 hours a week in high school and for 5 hours a week in college. He can read English better than he can write it, but he sometimes has problems reading technical manuals. He has particular difficulty in understanding native English speakers (especially the Texans on the rigs) and in completing forms and writing reports. He is also hesitant to speak English.

He has just been promoted to a new job where his immediate supervisor is an American engineer in his mid-40's, who has worked outside the United States for the past 10 years. He arrived in Indonesia about 4 months ago, after completing a 3-year tour in Brunei. He doesn't speak Bahasa Indonesia and besides, he believes that because engineers understand the same engineering concepts, they need very little language to communicate ideas.

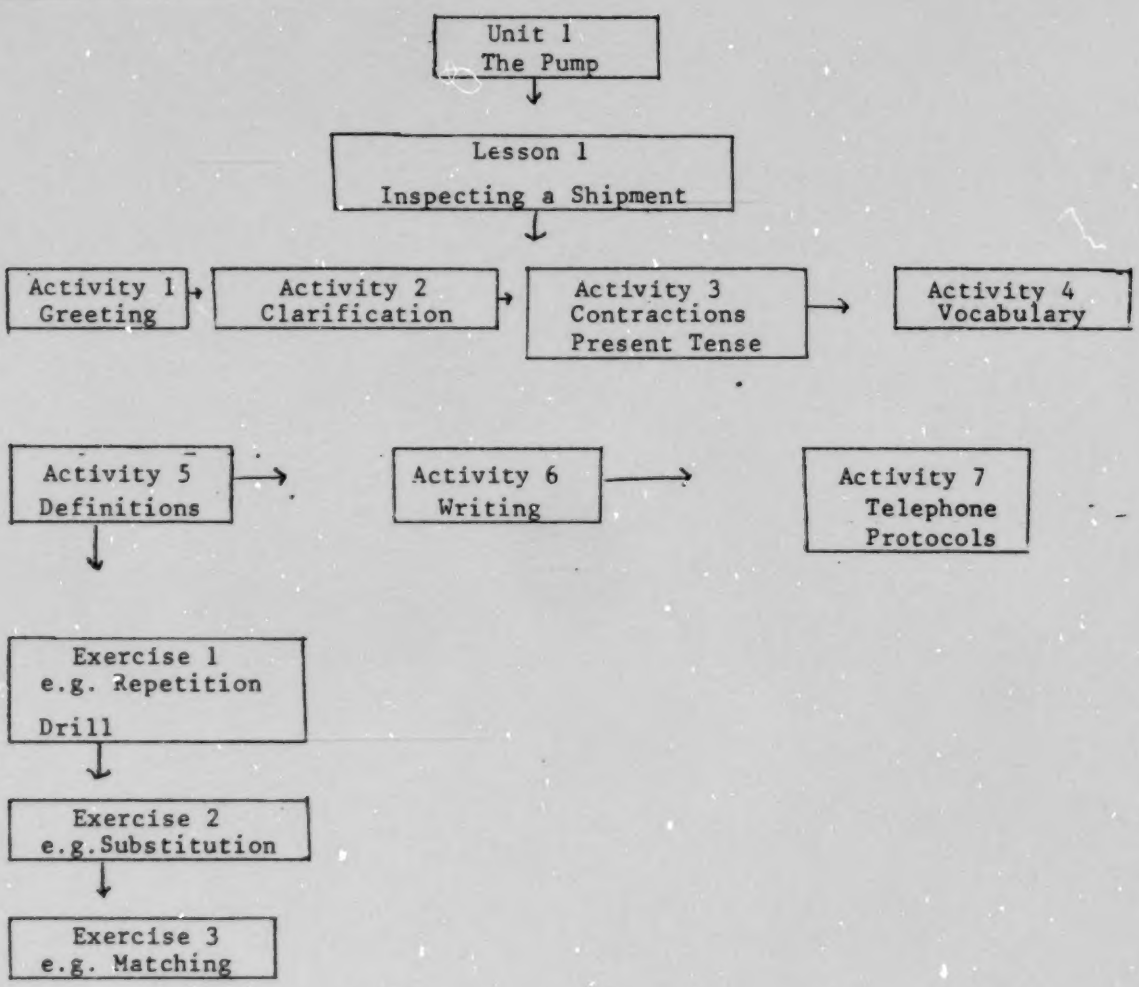
In addition, the program introduces a number of other characters, including an Arab investor who is buying equipment for Arab oil companies, a Japanese manufacturing representative and an Australian technical consultant who used to work in Indonesia and still consults there for an Australian firm.

The characters interact in realistic problem solving situations including:

- Inspecting a shipment of machinery
- Checking installation information
- Evaluating an industrial danger
- Reporting a near accident
- Speculating on the causes of a mechanical failure
- Setting up a program for a visitor
- Planning a safety seminar
- Comparing safety measures
- Answering questions on machinery maintenance
- Evaluating and comparing various pieces of machinery in operation
- Following maintenance procedures
- Describing problems in a power source
- Analyzing and correcting power supply problems
- Recommending future actions
- Reporting on recent activities

LESSONS

Each unit contains a variable number of activities which, together, integrate the language functions (of social and industrial language), the language skills, grammatical structures, and vocabulary found in each unit. The main point of each lesson is practiced in three or four activities, sequenced from most-controlled to least-controlled (i.e. easy to difficult). The overall scheme is as follows:



ACTIVATING THE PROGRAM

The use of this technical English program is entirely student-directed. The student will come to the "learning center", take a copy of the videodisc and the appropriate floppy disc, and insert them into the machine, i.e. a videodisc player and a micro computer. Once the machines are activated, a main menu will appear, in English, on the video monitor. This main menu will consist of a table of contents of the entire program. As the menu appears on the monitor, audio

instructions in Bahasa Indonesia will be activated. The narrator (in Bahasa Indonesia) will welcome students to the program and explain the choices which appear on the main menu. The student will then select the unit he wishes to study by pressing, via the touch screen, the appropriate number. At that moment, the videodisc will be activated, and the video segment of that unit will be played. After the segment has been played through one time, a sub-menu will appear on the monitor (see fig. II). The student can then decide whether to re-view the entire video segment, or to go directly to a lesson. By again touching the corresponding number on the screen, he can study any lesson he chooses; i.e. lessons do not necessarily have to be studied in sequence. Assessment is built into each lesson; mandatory assessment appears at the end of each unit.

A Sample Lesson: LESSON 1

SUB MENU (Lesson 1)

A. Repeat Entire Video Segment
B. Focus on Video
    1. Greetings
    2. Clarification
    3. Structure
        a. Contractions
        b. Present vs. Present Progressive Tense
    4. Vocabulary
        a.
        b.
    5. Definitions
    6. Writing
    7. Telephone
        a. Clarification Strategies
        b. Messages

Options/Functions:

- can repeat segment
- can go back for "help"* at any time
- after 2 consecutive wrong ansers, must return for "help"

*"help" usually consists of replay of presentation/explanation and/or other examples.

(explanation can be in L_1)

FIGURE II

ASSESSMENT

At the end of each unit, a simulation activity appears. This simulation activity always is a surrogate activity, i.e. the student plays a direct role and interacts directly with the videodisc. In this activity, the student surrogate is required to perform a task which is the same as the functional aims of the unit. For example, Unit 1 is aimed at teaching the students the language skills necessary to perform the functions of inspecting and verifying (i.e. "Receiving and Inspecting a Shipment") in English. Therefore, at the end of the unit, the student, as surrogate, is required to use the

skills taught in the unit by applying them to the performance of a similar, yet contextually different task. This simulation serves as a (self-) assessment activity. If the student/surrogate has difficulty (as determined by the number of incorrect answers recorded by the computer) performing the task(s) required, he/she will be instructed to either repeat the entire lesson or to return to certain, additional practice activities.

Moreover, at the end of each unit (i.e. five lessons), there is more complex simulation activity which requires the student/surrogate to apply a number of functions (i.e. those taught in the previous five lessons) to a new task. Thus, although the modules can be accessed and practiced in any order, there are cumulative assessments to determine over-all progress.

CONCLUSION

Although initial development and machine costs of interactive videodisc are high, these are one-time costs with actual per-student costs becoming low over time, since all materials can be used by several students at one time and can be recycled whenever desired. Videodisc offers an exciting means of providing realistic contexts and good models in a manner which simulates technical work, and which allows learners to make as many mistakes as they must, to repeat as often as necessary, and to acquire English in a "friendly", basically anxiety-free environment.

A DESCRIPTION OF A COURSE IN ENGLISH FOR BUSINESS FOR THE ACADEMIC ESL STUDENT

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As the number of foreign students choosing to begin their English-as-second-language (ESL) studies in the United States shifts from those of little or no English proficiency to those of more intermediate and advanced proficiency so have the ESL courses changed to accommodate their needs. The student who comes to the United States with a fairly good background in English arrives to complete his ESL studies and to get on with his true purpose for studying English. With this change, those of us in ESL have seen an ever growing demand for English for Special Purposes (ESP). Courses such as English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and English for Business and Economics (EBE) are becoming the mainstay of good ESL programs.

All of these special courses are very different from the typical ESL course in that they focus on a specific need of the student or on a particular field. In English for business and economics the students quite obviously focus on the English that is used in business. In the three years that I have taught EBE at the University of California, Extension at Berkeley, the class has constantly been in demand. The course originated at the request of ESL students enrolled in the English language program. Since its onset the course has endeavored to meet the needs of the students: approximately half need English for post-graduate studies in business or a related field and the other half need English for professional purposes. This then creates somewhat of a division in the class and its goals. The professionals are usually either currently employed by their home-based companies and on leave in order to improve their English, or hoping that improving their English will better their opportunities in the job market in their own countries. The students have represented practically every foreign country that sends students to the United States to study English. For the most part, however, the professionals have been both Europeans and

Japanese. The Japanese, in particular, are not interested in obtaining degrees outside their native country, but rather need to acquire native speaker fluency and cultural knowledge that will prove useful to them in their business dealings at home and abroad. The students have tended to fall into the areas of marketing, advertising and sales.

EBE, then, is to be distinguished from Vocational English as a Second Language (VESL), in that EBE students do not plan to stay any longer in the United States than is necessary to become proficient in English in order to obtain their degrees. EBE students eventually return home to work for their own companies. VESL students, on the other hand, are generally permanent residents of the United States and need immediate on-the-job skills mastered, such as handling telephone conversations, job interviews, and so on. EBE, however, does not touch on these practical day-to-day aspects of English.

Because of student goals and needs, more formal academic written and oral communication is emphasized in order to effect more efficient and successful communication in the situations in which these students will function in the future. Students headed for American universities need to write papers and intelligently participate actively in discussions. Professionals need to also write well and to be able to communicate orally so that meaning is conveyed with a minimum of confusion or misinterpretation. This, of course, presents a certain difficulty in teaching the course and planning the curriculum. However, these problems are not insurmountable.

The course is therefore demanding. Students who enter EBE generally have a Test-of-English-as-a-Foreign-Language (TOEFL) score of at least 450. They must have had previous business experience, either college

undergraduate degrees or job experience. When those with other than business backgrounds have been allowed to enter the course, it has proven to be a mistake. It often happens that a student will sign up for the class because it sounds interesting and because they are tired of general ESL classes. Experience has shown that these students tend to change the course in an adverse manner, or that they are not really willing to put in the amount of work that is required of them.

It should be noted that on the outset of each semester, the students were made aware of the fact that their EBE teachers did not have business backgrounds, but that they were ESL teachers who had an interest in business and knowledge of the English that would be appropriate in the field. It might also be noted that most of the instructors involved with the project found that this was their greatest fear when the course was initially taught--a fear that was very soon overcome. None of the teachers had any particular background or training in business other than an occasional office job. The important factor in teaching the course well was to have a sincere interest in business and business matters, and, of utmost importance, was having researched the field and prepared the course well.

Initially, in setting up the course, much time was spent in researching what was necessary to teach business English and in particular what types of problems non-native speakers have or might have, not only as graduate students in this country, but also as professionals dealing with American and international business.

In the ESL program that this EBE class is a part of, the students study for twenty hours a week in ten week quarters. The program is academic; thus, conversational English is de-emphasized, but not ignored. For the most part, these students are not yet enrolled in American universities, but intend to enter universities upon completion of their English studies. EBE

is offered to students who are completing their English studies. The average class size is fifteen, and all three skill areas are taught: pronunciation and aural comprehension, grammar and writing, and reading and speaking. This is mentioned simply because this is how the course will be described in this paper; however, it is neither necessary nor optimal to teach the skills as separate entities. The course could certainly be varied in many ways. Thus, the units are broken down to fit the pattern of the other ESL classes in the program. For EBE, four and one-half hours a week are devoted to the pronunciation and aural comprehension class, seven and one-half hours for reading and speaking, and a total of seven and one-half hours for grammar and writing. However, the time in grammar class is four and one-half hours, while the remaining three hours are spent in individual conferences each week.

Pronunciation and aural comprehension is actually a misnomer. Since the class actually does very little with individual, or group for that matter, pronunciation needs. It, instead, is the more interesting and also most difficult portion of the course to set up. it changes from quarter to quarter depending upon student interest and what is available at a given point in time. The other classes can for the most part continue with the same curriculum and course study with relatively few changes.

Because of the structure of the English language program in which this EBE course was initially formed, the first few sessions of this pronunciation class were exactly that. Students did a lot of language laboratory work, and an effort was made to help them with their individual pronunciation problems. The class was the only part of the curriculum that was not really very different from the general ESL program. However, the course evolved into a program of study that was more oriented to business

and less to general ESL. It in fact turned out to be extremely popular with the students and teachers alike. This the class where students went on field trips, listened to professionals speak and viewed and discussed videos and films related to business.

Because of the nature of the class it is really unrealistic to expect that only four and one-half hours a week was spent on activites; quite often the hours exceeded the minimun. The only aspect of this class that did carry over from the original pronunciation class was teaching English that is peculiar to culture, e.g. body language, gambits and so on.

Since this course was taught in a very large metropolitan area, there was a multitude of local business and industry available for field trips. However, local business was not always anxious to have group tours, or if it was possible to visit, it would usually require preparation months in advance. Nevertheless, it was always possible to schedule at least two visits per quarter. Some such trips were to the international division of a major bank, where the students were lectured to and given the opportunity to ask questions. Another trip was to a major clothing manufacturer, where the students were given a tour of the plant and once again allowed to ask questions. Examples of others were visits to the Pacific Stock Exchange, and a local computer company. Not all of the visits allowed time for questions and answers. Some visits were extremely profitable in terms of the English experience the students gained and others not. Nevertheless, all the trips were of value since their main purpose was to give the students a common topic to discuss, read, and write about in their other classes. It made English come alive for them, which is afterall what they really needed and wanted in order to improve their proficiency in the language. The trips that could be made available to any group of students would, of course, depend upon the community and its business and industry.

However, the success of the class does not depend upon these trips; videos and films can easily substitute.

The videos were the easier aspect of the course. These were chosen on the basis of students' interests and backgrounds. Because of the association with U. C. Berkeley, there was a vast array of videos to choose from. Selections were also made based on what the business school was showing to their students. There are some excellent audio visual materials that have been prepared for the business student. In addition, such shows as "Nova" on PBS have topical programs, one such program that we used was on the boom in Silicon Valley--a topic very popular not only with our foreign students these days.

Lectures and speeches for this class were not done by the students, but rather by people from the outside--professionals or well-informed persons in the area of business. These lectures were, as were the trips, difficult to set up, but extremely rewarding once done. The difficulty lies in the time spent in setting up speakers. At U.C. Berkeley speakers brought in for the entire program were given a small honorarium. If this is possible, it does make it easier to obtain guests for the students; however, success does not depend upon it. In addition to local business people, graduate students and friends of teachers were invited to speak. It should be noted here that none of the classes ever intended to teach business. On the contrary, the purpose of all of the classes was to give students the "tools" with which to work with the subject, thus being more the vehicle to practicing the language than the language itself. For the students themselves could quite often qualify as experts.

Thus, the pronunciation class quite obviously often ran over its four and one-half hour time limit. In addition, when time permitted, students

practiced working on traditional ESL aural comprehension activities, but with an emphasis on business terminology and situations; these included learning and practicing gambits, roleplays, body language and appropriate forms of discourse. One quarter, for example, the class actually took a trip to the financial district during lunch hour with the sole purpose of observing "typical" Americans on a break from their daily routines. Students were to observe dress and body language. Observations were made and discussed, but it should be mentioned that the most reward from the trip was gained from just the social outing itself.

Discussion has been mentioned in relation to the various trips and films. These discussions took place for the most part in the reading class. Consequently, the pronunciation/aural comprehension class was closely coordinated with the reading and speaking class, which met every day for one and a half hours. It is in this class that much of the pre- and post-field trip and lecture discussions took place. At Berkeley, these two classes were always taught by two different people; therefore, good coordination was essential. These classes were usually prepared by both teachers.

Once again, there was no attempt to teach content. Rather readings were selected for the purpose of using the language; vocabulary building was an ongoing process. Students were usually assigned to be vocabulary secretaries for a day or a week at a time. It was the secretary's responsibility to collect any vocabulary that came up in class, record it, prepare a handout, and then present it to the rest of the class. Vocabulary came from readings, student speeches, outside conversations with Americans, and direct teaching. The vocabulary that was directly introduced on a weekly basis was slang and idioms. Such expressions as "to be laid off" and "to pass a bum check" were taught.

There was no text; the readings were chosen by the teacher and students. Readings came from a variety of sources. The readings that were consistently used were selections from newspapers and current periodicals, selections from university texts, and annual reports. Students were encouraged to choose their own topics for readings. The Wall Street Journal was read on a weekly basis. Students were also required to turn in two reading journals a week. This was basically a report of an article read. The students were to summarize the article briefly and then react—either with opinion or general comments. This is the one aspect of the reading class that was tied into the grammar class. As will be mentioned later, the grammar teacher made a point of teaching summarizing the first week of the course so that the students could begin writing as best as possible for their reading journals. The journal was for the most part a written assignment, but from time to time some teachers required students to present a portion of their journal orally.

In addition to discussions based upon readings and trips taken in the pronunciation/aural comprehension class, students were requried to deliver at least one formal speech during the course. This formal speech was to be delivered as it might be at a conference. Students were encouraged to help each other with comments on delivery, body language, effect, and success of communication. Again, it was not so much the content of the speech that was important as it was how the message was delivered and understood.

As was mentioned earlier, group discussions were also an essential aspect of the reading class. Not only were they based on selected readings, but they were also based on case studies. Students were given many cases throughout the quarter, not only for discussion purposes, but also for the purpose of decision making experiences within a group. Of course, these studies quite often led to discussions of cultural differences and thus

would give students the opportunity to share openly with one another and to discuss not only how their culture would handle a certain situation but also how an American would. This is where the teacher then became an important resource person--a good reason for having an ESL trained teacher. Case studies are, of course, used frequently in business schools. They have to be selected carefully, however, so that the optimum of discussion will evolve and hopefully students will be able to discover cultural differences in a setting where mistakes will not make a difference. An example of a case study that was not successful was one in which a very qualified woman was overlooked for a promotion. Upon studying the case the student discussion lasted no more than five minutes, simply because they were unamious in their agreement with the case study. This is not to say that topics such as workers' rights or, in this case, those of women should be avoided. However, better preparation should be done, so that the cases presented to the students will elicit more than a brief dicussion. This requires not only a certain amount of familiarity with the students, but also with their cultures.

Finally, because this is afterall an ESL reading class, students still need to spend a fair amount of time on reading skills. They need to work on basic skills (e.g., main idea and significant details), as well as critical and interpretive reading skills. Because there is no particular textbook for this course, this is again where the teacher needs to do considerable amount of preparation outside of class. Adapting native-speaker materials seemed to work best.

The last component of the EBE course is the grammar and writing class. This is the one class that functions rather independently from the other two. This class meets three times a week as a group for a total of four and

one-half hours. The remaining three hours are spent in individual conferences, thirty minutes a piece. The goal of this class is to produce effective written communication. Grammar is not emphasized, but rather dealt with individually. However, aspects of grammar that are formally taught are those that are generally needed by the average advanced-level ESL student, for example, subordination, and problem areas such as infinitive versus gerund, and prepositions are worked on. The writing emphasized is expository; specifically, summary, comparison and contrast, persuasion and argument, and cause and effect were taught.

The main goal of the writing and grammar class is to help students communicate more efficiently and correctly on paper. Oral conversation will generally allow for a certain amount of imperfection in both grammar and pronunciation. Unless it is a telephone conversation or speech over a public address system, body language (including gestures and facial expressions), and the opportunity to ask questions help facilitate communication--none of which is available when the form of communication is written. In writing, even the slightest of errors can misconstrue meaning or even present a situation that is unintentionally funny, insulting, or embarrassing. Take, for example, this sentence written by a foreign scholar to an American firm: "I think that it may be an awful mistake, but could you send the information." Is it clear what he was trying to communicate? How much needless time is wasted in trying to understand what the mistake is he is talking about? All the writer of the letter wanted to convey was that he hoped his request would not cause any inconvenience. Therefore, it is essential that the foreign student really force himself to write as well as he can. The student is not, however, expected to turn out great essays written in literary style. On the contrary, the writing that is done is in fact very mechanical and foreign students are quite capable of producing such

writing. It is also important that the student also practice and get into the habit, if he is not already, of editing his own work before it is sent out. Thus, it is this reason that the class meets only three times a week. The students are then given ample time to prepare their assignments outside of class. The in-class sessions are devoted to teaching rhetoric, style, and grammar that is needed by all. Twice a week the instructor meets with the students individually for the purpose of editing drafts and directing students to self study of particular needs. The assumption is made that these students already have sufficient background in grammar.

Aside from the first assignment, which is usually a letter, and used diagnostically, the students are required to produce a 200-word essay every two weeks. In addition to the topic, the essay is also controlled by the form of rhetoric that is being taught that week. The student turns in his essay which is corrected and returned to him. They are encouraged to make appointments for an individual conferences before they rewrite their assignments in order to maximize correctness. It should be mentioned that the students are required to have at least four individual conferences during the ten-week period. They are not, however, limited to four and the first one is scheduled for all after the diagnostic letter. Encouragement is usually not needed, since students soon learn the value of these conferences.

Throughout the course, correct format, style, punctuation, and wording are taught as well as rhetoric and specific grammar. Ultimately each student will produce a formal 1500-word report, containing a title page, a table of contents, a letter of transmittal, an abstract, and a well-written essay including footnotes, a bibiliography, and some technical data. For the

final report, the students are allowed to choose their own topic and rhetorical form.

Finally, one other thing that is covered briefly at the end of the quarter is resume writing. For the most part, students do not really need much with this, but they are always interested in learning how to put a good resume together and enjoy doing one. Basically, they are given some samples of resumes (both chronological and functional) to compare and discuss.

It was not mentioned earlier, but perhaps is obvious, that as with the other components of EBE there is no particular text used in the grammar and writing class. Once again, the teacher has to develop or adapt a lot of the materials--tedious work, but rewarding once done--and different from the reading and pronunciation classes, the grammar and writing materials can be used from quarter to quarter with virtually no changes.

In conclusion, one of the biggest difficulties in setting up an EBE course has been the paucity of materials written for the ESL student. There is a lot of very excellent native-speaker material to chose from, but not all of it is either suitable or adaptable for the non-native speaker, thus requiring considerable preparation on the part of the teacher--once again, emphasizing the importance for an ESL trained teacher.

As was stated earlier, this course has been extremely popular with students; in fact, there is quite often a waiting list for the course. The only complaint that the students consistently had throughout the beginning quarters was that they feared that they might not be getting enough general English that they would need for their every day life. This of course was not true. Students bound for graduate school also feared that they might not be getting enough grammar to help them perform well on the TOEFL. Another fear that was not true. In the three years that the course has been taught the data collected has shown that students across the board improve

their TOEFL scores by at least 50 points at the end of the EBE course. It should also be noted that just because it was a business class, this did not limit the type of material brought into the class. In fact, sometimes it was better to use passages that were not business related at all. An example of this is a sentence combining exercise that was created for the grammar class. A compound sentence was taken from a daily newspaper and broken down into simple sentences. The students were then to reconstruct the information into one sentence keeping the meaning the same. The following is part of the exercise that did not work as intended:

> Combine the following sentences into one sentence keeping the same meaning.
>
> 1. The First National City Bank is in Chicago.
> 2. The First National City Bank of Chicago lowered its prime lending rate.
> 3. They lowered it to 18 percent.
> 4. They lowered it yesterday.
> 5. It was a surprise.
> 6. Wall Street closed down yesterday as a result.

The students became very involved with a discussion as to whether or not there was a First National City Bank of Chicago, and if there were such a bank, was it important enough to cause Wall Street to close down. In addition, there were also some students who did not understand the meaning of "down." Needless to say the grammar point was completely lost. Therefore, it is better sometimes to design exercises with language that would not generate inappropriate discussion or a diversion of interest. The discussion that ensued however was interesting; nonetheless, the exercise had to be redone on another day.

The positive aspect of the course is obvious: the students, because they are practicing English in an area of interest, are motivated to work hard and as a result learning is improved and made more enjoyable. This is important and significant when you consider that these are advanced ESL

learners. Anyone who has had the opportunity to teach advanced ESL students can testify to the fact that these students are usually burned out on their general ESL courses and quite anxious to get on with their real reasons for learning English and being in the United States.

It should be stated that the program of study that has just been described is by no means considered to be a final product. The course is still being shaped and improved upon; however, it does seem to be an important beginning and does fill a need of foreign students coming to the United States to pursue business degrees or to acquire the language skills for practicing international business.

GRADUATE LEVEL ESL FOR BUSINESS: WHAT AND HOW

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Graduate Level ESL for Business: What and How

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The graduate-level Business English as a Second Language (ESL) courses described here are part of the Master's Program in Language and International Trade in the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies at Eastern Michigan University. The two-course sequence totalling 10 semester credit hours was first offered during the 1982-83 school year and fulfills the Program's business foreign language requirement for non-native speakers of English.

The students who take this course have varied greatly from year to year. Apart from the fact that English is not their first language, and that all of them have scored a minimum of 500 on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) or 80 on the Michigan Test Battery or hold an undergraduate degree from an American university, which exempts them from the Graduate School admission requirement of presenting an official English proficiency score, students have differed significantly from each other in their language proficiency, their formal business training and their real world work experience. Some have a textbook knowledge of English, while others have a functional knowledge; some have had a few business courses, some have had none; some have worked in business for a few years, some have not yet held a job.

The narrative that follows is a description of the goals and objectives and the activities of the courses as they have developed during the initial two years. The conclusion summarizes the evaluative comments and suggestions made by the business ESL students and outlines the areas that we feel should be developed or expanded. A brief outline of the language components and skills taught in this sequence is appended to this paper.

While the aim of the courses is to teach language usage appropriate for a business environment, the focus is not on grammar or vocabulary. Both these components are treated as by-products of the language skills being developed. As students become more proficient in a foreign language, grammar and vocabulary errors or "shortages" become more idiosyncratic. Thus, for the most part, grammar is treated on an individual basis through required written work, such as summaries of business articles, business letters and memos, and short written-out oral presentations. Vocabulary expansion is promoted through business materials used in all activities, both written and oral. Students are encouraged to note interesting and/or unknown vocabulary items and then to use them immediately in their written or oral work. A small amount of class time is devoted to an exchange of "interesting" grammar phrases or vocabulary expressions on a daily basis. The items that the students bring up usually stem from business materials (TV programs, magazine/newspaper articles) that they are using to prepare for another task. Since most of these students are interested in sounding as educated as they really are, there is the self-motivation necessary for this approach to be successful.

From time to time, comprehension and control of high-level grammar structures are handled in a more centralized manner. When several students seem to have problems with the same grammar structure, such as the word order of embedded WH-questions, structure is reviewed and practiced in a traditional way. One of the textbooks we have used reviewed selected grammar structures in alternative chapters. Occasionally comprehension of suspected difficult-to-comprehend grammar structures was checked through written paraphrase exercises. After completing the task individually, the class would work in small groups to compare their comprehension of the structure, which generally resulted in a discussion by the whole class.

Vocabulary development is encouraged in a much more systematic way. Some business terms are presented and defined in a formal way in Business ESL textbooks. However, business terms are also being presented and learned in their economics, management, marketing, etc. classes; many already know several business terms in English. They are more interested in learning non-technical, educated vocabulary; such as "to vouch for"

or "to tighten its credit reins." This level of vocabulary appears all over the pages of the business sections of newspapers and magazines and the "sound waves" of business reports or interviews on the radio and television.

To develop mastery of this category of comprehension, students are divided into groups of 4 to 6 persons for the purpose of selecting, reading, discussing and writing a short summary of business articles. Every week this group works together for several minutes to accomplish the tasks assigned. As a group, they must also select and turn in a list of 5 new or interesting vocabulary items in the context of the sentence in which they were found. These lists are then compiled into one long list and are handed out to all students. The originating group is responsible for finding out the meaning and orally presenting more background information on the context if necessary. Again students are encouraged to use new expressions in speaking and writing as soon and as frequently as possible in order to facilitate learning. Quizzes are given on these words every two to three weeks. This approach to vocabulary development has been entertaining and well-received by the students.

The reading skills worked on are not too different from those in any other ESL class: text-analysis, main ideas, supporting information, facts or opinions, conclusions, outlining, and visuals. The main difference was that the reading materials selected were taken from unedited, native-speaker materials: newspapers, business magazines and journals, and company reports. At least one article a week was read by the class as a whole. (This was in addition to the articles that they were reading for their summary groups.) As much as possible, the article was always on the same topic each week. We followed a breaking business story.

The topic of this "class article" has been different each semester. The first year we followed the saga of the attempted Bendix take-over of Martin-Marietta. The second year we followed the divestiture of American Telephone and Telegraph. These articles were difficult for the students in the beginning because of the background knowledge and the language. As the term progressed, comprehension became easier because the contextual framework was established in the reader's mind and everyone "knew who the players were." The above mentioned reading skills were taught from these articles. This technique has been most

successful as a good news item appears everywhere--on the newspaper, in magazines, on the TV, on the radio and occasionally in the students' personal mail (their telephone bills). From the content of these readings, writing skills were developed.

Writing activities include the following: summaries (skeletal vs. expanded), memorandums, personal resumes, business letters and business reports. Summaries are done both semesters on a weekly basis from the articles in business journals or newspapers that are used for reading development. Students are asked to briefly summarize using the outlines from their reading. The emphasis is for the summary to be "bare-bone", or skeletal, in order to avoid unnecessary details and examples. Rationale is easily available from the need to get the reader to read a report in detail, for example, from the succinct summary.

Memorandum writing practice includes looking at the visual organization and presentation, as well as the content. Situations of problems that occur in an office are often used as a basis for the memo. Groups look at a problem, discuss it, and make decisions about what should be done, and what information should be given to whom. Once the memo is written, the students analyze it to see if it was appropriately handled, if the message was clear, and if the author included what was expected of the recipient and when.

Personal resumes are also written as students will be looking for jobs in the near future, if they are not already doing so. The Office of Career Placement and Development on campus, and local businessmen in Personnel are vitally important contacts for help in this area--both for format and content. Resumes are excellent practice in succinctly giving important, relevant factors about yourself.

Business letters, which are often grounds for student complaints, are a useful vehicle to touch on a variety of things (vocabulary, tone, tact, clarity, etc.). One method of doing this is to pair the students so that when they write a letter, they always send it to the same person. For example, person A always sends his/her letter to person B, and B always replies to person A. Thus, when A sends an order letter to B, B will write back that there is a problem in filling the order at that time, but stating that it can be filled later, and vice-versa. After the order arrives, A writes a letter of complaint which B must respond to, etc. In this manner, students get experience writing claim letters,

credit request letters, order letters, request letters, etc. It seems to work nicely in class, and helps develop interpersonal relationships. The letter types and samples come from Business Communications, William and Balij Hemstreet, Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., Belmont, CA, 1969.

Another series of letters include those related to the personal resume: an unsolicited application letter or a solicited application letter, a request for appointment and/or field interview, and a thank you for the interview and/or field visit. One way of handling this is to ask students to find newspaper ads (Sunday New York Times, for example) for positions that they would be interested in and to respond to those ads as if they were really applying. Students bring the ad, their letter and resume to class, and it is critiqued by other students on the basis of what was discussed by the personnel resources. Furthermore, when students are assigned to do field interviews, one way it can be done is to ask the students to write for an interview, stating the purpose, and then to make a follow-up phone call to set up an appointment. Once this is done, and the interview/appointment has taken place, the student writes a thank you to the individual. Again, individuals write their own letters, bringing them to class for critique, help, and revision.

Finally, after working with summaries, letters, memorandum, the students are asked to write a final business report. The topic is open for the students to choose in order to match their individual interests and needs. Guidelines, which all reports must follow, are given. One requirement is that there be an Executive Summary at the beginning; another is that there be at least one graphic presentation in the report. As with many writing assignments, the problem is clarification of who the report is going to be sent to, and what purpose the report is going to serve. Once that is clearly delineated, a variety of interesting reports arise. The Brown (1980) text is extremely useful for the students, although it was not written for ESL students. Despite initial groans and complaints from students, year-end evaluations and student comments prove that this exercise is very valuable and students are extremely proud of what they accomplish.

One activity that is also done in connection with writing is that of proof-reading. There are some excellent activities and suggestions in the Brown text, as well as others, for students. Student complaints at first ("I don't have to learn this; I'll have a secretary to do it.")

change into excitement and proof-reading becomes a game as the students get better at it. They proof-read specially written exercises, each others' work, and their own. Many people in business and industry, as pointed out in the current reports on US education, are appalled at the lack of capabilities of many recent college graduates to spell, punctuate, and write grammatically clear English. Thus, if non-native speakers can do so, they will have an advantage in terms of hiring.

Listening activities include work on hearing the message as it is sent by the speaker; analyzing the real purpose of the message' and empathizing with the speaker's feelings and accepting them. There are some recent articles and one text out which deal with listening in the business context, but they lack a variety of exercises.

Students are asked to listen for main ideas from guest speakers and from field interviews. They are of course responsible for the content of the speakers' talks. In addition, sources such as Wall Street Week in Review, and Nightly Business Report on Public Broadcasting Television Stations, have been used for main idea. Students find the programs of interest, but also find them overwhelming because of the quantity of material given in a short time, and because of the educated language being used. Not all of the language heard is technical; much of it is dry and witty, with plays on words.

People in the local business community have been extremely helpful in working with the students. Some have helped arrange field visits; others have come to talk to the class; many have given suggestions for other outside speakers. One potential source might be retired businessmen who live in the community.

Asking students to do field interviews also worked well in getting students into a "real situation" where they had to listen actively, and take notes on what was said in order to report it back to the class, either in writing or orally, or both.

One further type of listening exercise that is done occurs in the role-play activities in class. Students must listen carefully to what the other individuals say in order to respond appropriately. This is often monitored by one person in the small group being assigned the role of listener.

In addition to listening, speaking in front of a group is also emphasized throughout the two semesters. Students are taught a variety

of skills to be practiced, beginning with writing up the text of the speech, checking it for not only accuracy, but also marking it for eye contact with the audience (look to the left, to the right, to the center). It is also marked for pronunciation and intonation for those students who are hesitant to speak English and have difficulty being understood. Content of initial speeches is not new--rather it is a review of the content that has been studied in the class. For example, students present the material from the text orally--as a review for the final exam--and practice oral presentations at the same time. Another step is speaking from notes instead of a written text, again emphasizing the importance of eye contact with the audience. The use of visuals (overhead transparencies, slides, posters, etc.) is also added and finally, the use of "ice-breakers" is practiced. Although at first the students are quite nervous about doing these formal oral presentations, they do become more at ease, and more skillful; furthermore, they do think that it is useful, once it is over. If time permits, and facilities are available, listening to a tape of the talk, or watching a video-tape of the talk, with certain focus questions for the student, can be extremely valuable for them. The video-tapes definitely help the student see him/herself as others do--particularly for the non-verbal gestures; and both activities help the students monitor their own control of English grammar.

Another type of speaking activity that is practiced is a panel or group presentation. The topics have ranged--from a report on the differences of sales of types of canned products, to possibilities of jobs in different countries. Each panel, however, is given a certain amount of time, and is asked to have a moderator who introduces the group, sets the frame-work, and handles questions at the end. Each member of the group must do some speaking, and the division of the time must be equitable. Students do seem to enjoy not only their own presentations, but each others'.

There are a few things future Business ESL classes will attempt. One is a total office simulation within the classroom for a period of a week or so--someone will be the Chief Executive Officer (CEO), someone the President, etc. Each day, when the students come to "work", there will be some work in the in-box for them to do, which will allow them

to interact with other individuals in the company, use all of their English skills, and practice some roles that they may have in the future. (Larry Fisher, University of Colorado, presented this idea at the 1983 TESOL Convention in Toronto, and his bibliography of simulation and gaming is extremely useful.)

In addition to trying the office simulation, listening comprehension is one area that needs more time and practice, in our opinion. In addition, more job applications and more interviews--not only for employment purposes, but also for performance evaluations, grievance proceedings, etc. Many of the students will not be going into entry-level positions, but will go back into a supervisory position. Practice in doing these types of interviews in English will be useful to them.

Telegram writing, telex writing, are two areas that we hope to include next year, as that is a different skill that often is needed in international communication within a business.

One other area for the future is to work on networking--hot to go about it and to establish it--and stress management. Negotiations would also lend themselves to interrupting, disagreeing, contradicting, adding on, and reinforcing other speakers in a group situation. All of these are very necessary skills for individuals in the world of American business--and in dealing with American businessmen.

One resource we hope to have available to our students in the future is the BBC video-tape of Bid for Power for a base for discussions, problem-solving, listening comprehension, and enjoyment.

Many of the things we have discussed have come from suggestions of colleagues gathered at Conferences--one of the most useful has been a handout given by Marianne McDougal, Oregon State University at the 1983 Conference on Foreign Languages for Business, Ypsilanti, Michigan. Entitled "Academic and Community Resources", it contains a wealth of ideas for teaching Business English as a Second Language.

While teaching the Business ESL course is a demanding task for the teacher in terms of preparation, implementation and correction, the rewards are many. Motivation of students is high, willingness to work is evident and camaraderie among students develops quickly--necessary components of a successful classroom. Most importantly, students do progress in their ability to cope with a variety of situations in a business environment--the principal objective. I

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GRADUATE LEVEL ESL FOR BUSINESS: A Description of a 10 hour, 2 semester course sequence

Language Components

Grammar:

*Specific grammar points dealt with individually
--written work
--oral presentations

*High-frequency grammar structures highlighted (class)
--business letters
--business reports
--oral presentations

Vocabulary:

*Business terms (text)
--writing formal definitions
--writing informal definitions

*Functional (subtechnical), including idioms
--from business articles
--from text(s)
--from presentations

*Denotation vs. connotation

Reading:

*Comprehension of a variety of texts (newspapers, business articles from weekly news magazines, business magazines, business journals)

*Text analysis of organization
--main idea of article/paper
--main ideas of paragraph
--supporting information
--fact vs. opinion
--conclusion
--outlining
--visuals: figures, graphs, charts

*Text analysis of language
--transitions
--references
--level of vocabulary
--level of formality

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Writing:

*Summarizing (skeletal vs. fleshy)
*Memorandums
*Personal Resume
*Business Letters (format and content)
  --claim letters ("yes" and "no" responses)
  --credit request letters ("yes" and "no" responses)
  --order letters ("yes" and "no" responses)
  --request letters ("yes" and "no" responses)
  --unsolicited application letter
  --solicited application letter
  --request for appointment/field interview
  --thank you for interview, field visit
*Business Reports
  --informative (text and field-based)
  --analytical
*Proofreading
  --text
  --peer
  --own

Listening:

*Types of listening
  --hearing the message as sent
  --analyzing the real purpose of the message
  --empathizing with the speaker's feelings and accepting those feelings
*Comprehension of main idea
  --Wall Street Week and Nightly Business Report (TV)
  --Guest Speakers
  --Field visits/Interviews
*Role-play

Speaking:

*In front of a group
  --from a marked written text (pauses, stress)
  --from notes
  --using visuals
  --using eye contact
  --organization of content (ice-breakers)
*Panel Discussion
*Role-play
*Problem-solving
*Phone request for interview
*Field interview

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GRADUATE LEVEL ESL FOR BUSINESS: A Description of a 10 hour, 2 semester course sequence

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LANGUAGE PRACTICE SEMINAR FOR BUSINESS PROFESSIONALS

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Language Practice, Seminar, and Business Professional

Three concepts which are basic to our approach to language teaching appear in the title. Each of these concepts has a specialized meaning in second language teaching and learning. As we discuss each of these concepts and their application to business language learning specifically, we will note brief examples of the tasks which seem best to conform to these principles.

In the teaching of languages for special purposes, LSP, there has been a growing tendency to distinguish the communicative functions of a second language used for study, Language for Academic Purposes, from the functions of a second language used for work. (See, for example, Strevens, p. 92, who uses the terms English for Educational Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes.) Those who make the distinction at all base the distinction on the uses to which the language will be put. According to this point of view, a learner who needs a language for occupational purposes is more likely to need to write business letters in the second language than is the student who needs a language for further study. The latter is seen as needing eventually to write essays in the second language. Consequently, language teaching beyond the more generalized basic proficiency levels has largely been organized according to the uses to which the learners will

put their language studies. We believe that current theories of meaning indicate that a more efficient basis would be to organize courses according to what knowledge and experience learners bring to the language teaching situation.

Business Professionals

The basis for placing students in one of several business language courses has shifted over time. Until quite recently, the course differences were distinguished by attained language proficiency in a general language course or even a business language course. This division was reflected in course titles such as Beginning Business English, Intermediate Business German, or Advanced Business French. Sometimes a variant title such as Business French for Beginners was used but the beginning emphasized beginning French, not beginning Business. The developments in notional-functional course design through the efforts of the Council of Europe only strengthened this organization. Eventually, it became painfully evident that the learners could be classified in any of several ways, all of which resulted in patterns of overlapping and omissions.

Recent investigations in both script theory and discourse analysis suggest that it is <u>not the amount of language</u> a learner brings to the instructional situation that makes him similar to other students but <u>the amount of knowledge about his field</u>.

It is this background knowledge about and experience in a field that provides a student with the necessary scripts. A script is defined by Schank and Abelson (96-97) as "highly stylized ways of executing planboxes" (i.e., plans). It is our knowledge of and use of scripts that allows us to be concise in our communication. This conciseness is achieved by omitting redundant (i.e., anticipatable) content and highlighting only the unanticipatable or contrary content. For example, in communication we take much common understanding for granted. It is the unexpected that must be discussed and frequently negation is needed to express this unexpectedness (Labov:380-81). In newspaper writing Zuck and Zuck pointed out the use of such devices in reporting an accident with formulas like "no one was injured" or "no estimate of damage is available" to express situations opposite to those anticipated, to exclude anticipated possibilities, or to indicate no information is available to answer a reader's probable questions.

Scripts (or anticipated information and sequences of events) allow those with common backgrounds to communicate easily with each other. It is the assumed information, not the stated information, that causes the greatest problems for readers in fields not their own. Corder calls these omissions the complexification of language when one expert

is communicating with another. In contrast to the more usual usage, Corder refers to simplification as making relatively few assumptions about the reader's background knowledge and attempting to include all the most relevant background information. We suggest that scripts are allowed to develop most naturally when the participants in a group have somewhat similar background levels of knowledge and experience in their fields, in this case business. We are not minimizing the additional problems created by cross-cultural differences in script knowledge.

An experience that one of the authors had in an ESL course in Current Events for Business is relevant to our discussion. In this course the main text was the Wall Street Journal. Originally, the program description limited the course only to advanced readers, although the instructor intuitively did not agree. After a very short time, it became clear that the course needed to be restricted to students who were in the habit of reading newspapers--any newspaper in any language--and that the student's attained proficiency in English had little to do with classroom success. In fact, we hypothesize that it is easier to teach a non-English newspaper reader to read newspapers in English than to teach a native English reader to become a newspaper reader. Why is this so? The newspaper reader has developed certain useful

expectations about the content of newspaper articles which allow him to spot read for content with great confidence. The newspaper reader also transfers a set of techniques of self-evaluation of reading that take too long to convey to others in a short course in addition to all the other material. Someone who approaches material as a student rather than as a reader rejects nothing, ignores nothing, brings nothing to the task, and usually remembers nothing. In contrast, the reader authenticates the task, to use the words of Widdowson (1978). The reader, by acknowledging that the paper has material which will inform him, asks informative questions and approaches his reading looking for answers, marshalling all his previous knowledge and expectations, and rejecting "noise," i.e., content not apparently relevant to the information he is seeking.

The Seminar

The setting which appears to be most appropriate for invoking the previous knowledge of business professionals is a seminar-type business meeting. In the seminar format, all the typical components of the seminar prevail. The group is small, ideally no more than 6 to 7 people who sit around a table. Both the size of the group and the physical layout of the room are important: both contribute to the individual's sense of responsibility to participate. To us the seminar format suggests a more authentic audience.

Dwight Stevenson, in the University of Michigan School of Engineering, has been interested in ways an audience (of readers) should influence the composition of written technical reports. Recently, Stevenson, continuing his interest in the readers (audiences) of technical writing, makes the point that much technical and business writing in English is now being produced by non-native writers for non-native readers. When both the writer and reader in the non-native language share the same native language, the problem of understanding is great. When the non-native users of a language do not share a common set of cultural expectations, the problems created are even greater. As the latter situation becomes ever more common, Stevenson argues for the need to adopt an "international perspective" in technical and business writing. The usual reluctance of both teachers and students to have non-native students from various countries interpreting each other's work was based on the myth about students that "when they return to their home countries they will do technical writing in their own languages" (Stevenson:320). In showing this assumption to be "factually incorrect," Stevenson can be considered a supporter of practice situations in which non-native writers and readers practice communication with each other as we are suggesting.

Huckin and Olsen in their book, English for Science and Technology (50) have compared school audiences to real world

audiences; what they say about technical memoranda is just as relevant, we believe, to business memoranda. Some of the points they make are worth repeating. The school audience usually consists of only one reader, the teacher, who, being patient, makes a special attempt to understand all that is said. If something is not clear, the teacher, because he generally knows more than the writer, can figure out what the writer was trying to say, and can fill in, as it were, missing information. Furthermore, the teacher usually expects the writer to put a lot of detail into his work to show what he knows. In the real world, the audience consists of many readers, many of whom are busy and do not have the time to figure out something that is not clear In addition, the readers, because they are seeking information, often do not know more than the writer and cannot fill in gaps in the writing. Finally, many real world readers become impatient with a lot of detail, prefer generalizations, and often skip about reading only those parts they are interested in. Therefore, writing done "for the teacher" in a foreign language class is so different in crucial ways as to be inauthentic practice for the business writer. Rather, a seminar situation in which each member writes for others in the group is much closer to a real world audience.

Just the awareness of the desirability of a seminar model does not automatically lead to one. Tropman in his

work on Effective Committees notes that too often our study of ineffective committees starts with the committee meeting itself and the "troublesome" personalities on the committees. The real problem, he believes, lies in inadequate planning of tasks to be done, scheduling, and assignment of responsibility for actions. In other words, it could be said that foreign language problems in classes are not in the class itself but in the planning of the activities and the justification of them, the time allocations, and the clear responsibility and definition of tasks that are to be done outside of class. In addition, there needs to be much advance thought given to ways to change the learner expectation from student in a class to participant in a seminar. And these changes must be initiated at the very first meeting.

Language Practice

The job of the materials developer is not collecting so-called authentic materials from books, magazines, and newspapers, but designing tasks which invoke authentic responses to either authentic or inauthentic data. One aspect of all language teaching materials--even those that are basically the most enlightened--that has fascinated us is the number of pages of exercises in relationship to the number of pages of text. Frequently, a 10-page lesson will have 1-2 pages of text and 8-9 pages of exercise material. Thus the

reader is forced to act in very unauthentic ways when, for example, he is asked to answer multiple questions about a single flow chart. In language teaching materials, some of the typical questions accompanying a flow chart ask students to "read" the flow chart by going through all the steps in the hierarchy. In our materials, students are asked to use the flow chart. They go an art museum and choose one aspect of the museum or the exhibit which they like and one aspect which they do not like. Then, they have to consult a flow chart of the organization of the museum to see who to write the positive memorandum to and who to write the negative one to. To illustrate, the exhibit director would not be the proper person to address a complaint about slippery floors to; however, he would be the person to receive a complaint about the size of the signs in the exhibit. In each case, the students must decide, on the basis of the chart, whether to send a Xerox copy of the memorandum of praise or complaint to another person.

Interestingly, it really does not matter whether the flow chart is real or fabricated. What matters is how the learner approaches the chart and this is determined largely by what he is asked to do. Using recent work in discourse analysis, Widdowson (1983:37) describes schemata as stereotypical patterns derived from instances of past experience which

organize language in preparation for use. The schema is a rhetorical routine which once engaged generates expectations on the part of the listener/reader. Tasks which the students regard as authentic activate schema.

In another language practice project, the class is divided into two teams. Each team is given a task. For example, the team is asked to create a holiday which is important to all the members of their team, and to explain the details they consider necessary to consider alternate ways of celebrating this holiday and to send a request to the management. The teams then exchange requests and each becomes a management unit to sit in judgment on the requests of the other team. Each group is then given a copy of the multipage University of Michigan Standard Practice Guide on Holidays. They must respond to the other team by a) asking for clarification or more information, b) accepting the proposal or one of the alternatives and explaining their choice, or c) rejecting the alternatives and suggesting what would be necessary for the proposal to be considered favorably. Correspondence continues until each group gets a proposal accepted. (Recall the real world audience as mentioned earlier in the paper.)

In another example, each student describes some difficulty he had getting to work because of weather conditions. Then students exchange memoranda and compare the information with

that required by the University's Inclement Weather Policy. Each responds to his colleagues' memoranda. Although most employees are given memoranda on policies such as sick leave, etc. in advance, it seems that the memoranda are often misplaced and are unavailable at the time requests need to be written. On the other hand, if the teacher believes it is more authentic, students could each be given a memorandum or policy before writing their memorandum of inquiry.

One of the books which earned a cult-level following in ESL a few years ago was The Inner Game of Tennis. Tennis pro W. Timothy Gallwey puts great emphasis on the mental game of tennis. He observes not only did some mistakes correct themselves without the student knowing he had made them but also that verbal instructions sometimes decreased or delayed the correction (5). Language practice, like tennis, needs to be goal-oriented rather than grade-oriented. The evaluation and cycles of correction need to come automatically as needed by the communication situation and not as needed by the teacher.

One of the more interesting experiments we have conducted recently involved the students' concepts of self-evaluation. Frequently, when there have been guest speakers in our course, students have written out long, rather trivial questions in advance and then become lost when the speaker delivered an unfamiliar monologue. To correct this, the students still write out questions for the speaker but they also do a lot of

preparation before the class. They must explore the range of possible answers and the categories of expected information in the answer. They mark themselves for their understanding of a given lecture by the recording of any comments relevant to their questions. They then discuss similarities and differences between what they anticipated and what they heard. In this way, the listener involves himself in the listening in essentially authentic ways.

Summary

In the frantic early attempts to meet newly-recognized or newly-defined needs, there is an urgency that not only permits but even seems to require the rapid application of old solutions to new problems. Once the problems have been immediately sublimated, the new situation provides the ideal context for re-evaluating the old solutions. An urgent solution was caused when functional-notional language teaching invaded the field of business language practice which had itself existed for a fairly long and peaceful time. Now the new courses have been developed and the new textbooks written, and the researchers have told us that still there is a lot to be discovered but peace has set in again. The peacefulness provides time to pull back and cautiously examine the assumptions underlying current methods and materials. There are three topics that require reconsideration based on available

research: 1) the clientele of business language courses, 2) the concept of practice, specifically communication practice, and 3) the organization of the language practice setting--more commonly referred to as the class. In this paper, we have addressed each of these topics.

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DEEP SUPPER: A RATIONALE FOR THE METHODOLOGY AND SHAPE OF AN INTENSIVE COURSE IN SPOKEN ENGLISH FOR MALAY-SPEAKING EXECUTIVES IN BANKING, COMMERCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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Deep SupPer: a rationale for the methodology and shape of an intensive course in spoken English for Malay-speaking executives in Banking, Commerce and Public Administration

1. General background

1.1 The University of Malaya Spoken English Project (UMSEP) which began formally in mid-1980, was first suggested by the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Malaya, Professor Ungku Aziz, in a letter to the British Council in late 1977. He wrote that "the problem currently noticed is that a significant proportion of our graduates are not as articulate in English as is considered necessary for them to be fully effective in their respective jobs."(1)

As we soon found out, the linguistic situation in Malaysia, particularly as it applies to educational and occupational usage, is a complex and shifting one. The predominant language in educated and urban circles, and in all branches of commerce, has been and still is English; the same is still true, despite government encouragement for change, in the legal and public administration fields. In education, however, the changeover to Malay-medium is now complete; at the time when this project started, the first students whose education had been entirely in Malay were already at the university, and students were beginning to graduate who had

had no need to use English at all in their education, beyond the fact that most textbooks and reference books in the university library were in English. (The text-book problem, with students unwilling to spend long hours reading in a foreign language, had in fact already spawned a previous project, the University of Malaya English for Special Purposes Project, which had produced the "Skills for Learning" course, with disappointingly limited results.[2])

These graduating students now had to enter a job market where English was essential and it was clear that many had considerable difficulties. This is the background to the Vice-Chancellor's remarks.

1.2 The project was to be limited to undergraduates and recent graduates in the Faculties of Law, Economics and Arts, mainly because it was in these areas that the problem had been particularly noticeable, and the brief was to analyse the situation, propose suitable courses, and write materials for the courses.

The work of the Law team, under the co-ordination of Richard Mead, is described in another paper given at this conference[3]; the rest of this paper deals exclusively with the Arts/Economics side.

Arts and Economics were grouped together at an early date in the project, despite an initial assumption that they would be separate, because studies both of what jobs students from these two faculties actually went into and of what careers students aspired to showed a high degree of similarity; as the project as a whole was job-oriented rather than subject-oriented, it was thought unnecessary to write a separate course for each.

1.3 It quickly became clear that there would be a number of problems in getting final-year students, highly preoccupied as they were with their approaching final examinations, to pay more than passing attention to a course oriented towards problems which would only occur after graduation. A number of possible solutions were discussed, including an imaginative scheme for individualised self-access programmes monitored through individual tutorials, which would have had several advantages, including a saving in teacher-time, much greater opportunity for student-talk, and a flexibility of timetabling both within the week and within the year; however, the unfamiliarity of the methodology involved and the unchangeable tradition of not only having an examination but of having a general rather than an individualised examination meant that this idea was quickly abandoned, and although no pilot scheme along these lines was ever tried, it is clear that teacher opposition would have

militated against its success.

1.4 It would perhaps be interesting for a study of group dynamics, but unnecessarily long-winded in this context, to relate how we came first of all to start writing for a course divided into two halves - POP (Pre-Occupational Purposes), extensive, term-time, final year, and OP (Occupational Purposes), intensive, vacation, post-final year - and subsequently separated the two into completely independent programmes, with OP changing its name in the process to PACE (Professional, Administrative and Commercial English) and becoming a course designed specifically for groups of junior executives working in the Ministries, in banking or in commerce who were able to return to the university for a two- to four-week intensive course. It is with the latter course that I was particularly concerned, and, although there is, necessarily for two courses planned initially as a single programme, some overlap in approach and methodology between this and the POP course, my remarks should be taken from now on to apply only to the PACE course.

1.5 Although we spent more than one year on background work for the course - needs analyses, interviews with personnel managers and with junior executives, questionnaires, recordings of meetings, linguistic analyses,[4] testing, and so on - our

data when we started to write the course had yielded conclusions that were only slightly less nebulous than if we had spent a couple of mornings in brain-storming sessions. The main reason for this was that our brief was to produce a spoken English course, and it was therefore extremely difficult to place restrictions on (in other words, to "define") the sort of English our target population was likely to need. Social interaction - with colleagues in the office as well as with Malaysian and Foreign business contacts - was seen as at least as important as more formal, and therefore more closely definable, situations. It is, perhaps, pushing a point to qualify the course as "For Specific Purposes" beyond a certain restriction on the sort of "settings" we finally used for the course. Furthermore, it was extremely difficult both to settle on one particular target level and to forecast likely future levels given the rapidly changing language picture in Malaysia. We had three pilot courses with students way above our forecast level before we finally got a group of the sort of students we thought we were writing for.

The students with the most serious language problems tended to be those Malays from rural backgrounds who had had little contact with English speakers, although in the University's regular undergraduate English programmes we were beginning

to see more and more Indian and Chinese students as the national language policy began to take effect, and we could expect this trend to continue.

2. Horizontal organisation

2.1 Despite the continuing controversy over their use in theoretical linguistics, the terms "competence" and "performance" are useful in discussing attitudes to course design. Most courses can be seen to be biased towards one side or the other (and I take "competence" to include communicative competence, rules of use and appropriacy, logical sequence and so on, as well as the narrower Chomskyan linguistic competence). On the one extreme, as far as Spoken English courses are concerned, are books of pronunciation drills, concentrating on, for example, phonemic differentiation, and giving no opportunity for actual language use;[5] on the other are many recent courses of the "communicative" school which simply place the learner in a situation where he is obliged to use English and give no general or generalisable guidance on such use.[6] Most courses, naturally, and most teachers, ostensibly mix the two approaches, although at a deeper level a strong bias towards one side or the other may well be seen. For example, language usage exercises which are designed to practise a language point which has just been covered

necessarily have to be restricted, (otherwise there would be no guarantee that the language point would occur) and this control over what the learner says means that the exercise automatically become one dealing with competence, i.e. the establishing in the learner's mind of certain linguistic patterning. Similarly, at the other end of the spectrum, the teacher who is concerned whether a learner can obtain specific items of information, or communicate a specific piece of information, or understand a specific text, may "correct" the performance or suggest improved or more efficient ways of arriving at the same results, but unless what he says is in some ways generalisable, unless it is clearly seen that what the teacher (or the book) says should be understood to refer to a mutually agreed set of parallel situations, then he is dealing only with specific performance events.

2.2 Most people connected with the development of the materials had at some time tried and been impressed with the use of language or communication games. Games are things with their own internally cohesive set of rules and they can therefore be used to control some aspects of language output, participant roles and so on without recourse to manifestly artificial exercise type activities. However, there was a general feeling that such games were often seen as "not serious" by students, and unless learners could actually see that learning was

taking place, the lesson would be perceived as a failure, or at best a distraction from more serious things.

If the "game" were to be the major focus of each unit of the course, the point at which real communication and most real language acquisition would take place, we all agreed that it must be preceded by a session of focus on aspects of language use.

It was noticed at this point that this format differed from many traditional approaches to lesson shape ("instruction" followed by "practice") only in the greater emphasis given to the latter. (It is tempting to equate "instruction" with teacher-domination and "practice" with learner-domination, but the actual methodology used in this course would make such an analogy inappropriate). It was felt that this approach was often not successful because the significance or the implications for language use of the "instruction" section were not appreciated; in other words, the performance needed to precede the aspects of competence which supported the performance, in order to provide a context for it. But then, a further period of practice would be needed afterwards in order for the learner to improve on his initial performance by drawing on his increased repertoire.

This "sandwich" shape was adopted as our normal unit shape, and the initial performance section became known for obvious reasons as "Deep End" - the learners being "thrown in" to the situation without any prior instruction; this was then followed by the various "support" sections leading up to the final "performance" section. This Deep End - Support-Performance shape we characterised by the acronym Deep SupPer. A more detailed model of this is shown in the Appendix/ on the accompanying overhead transparency.

2.3 Some time after developing this nomenclature, we came across a paper by Keith Johnson called "The 'deep-end" strategy in communicative language-teaching"[7] which referred to a procedure first mentioned in Chris Brumfit's "Communicative' language teaching: an assessment"[8]. The procedure mentioned was the following: Stage One: Students communicate with available resources; Stage Two: Teacher presents items shown to be necessary; Stage Three: Drill if necessary. Although much of the argument in favour of the "deep-end" approach was similar to our own, the subsequent lesson development differs considerably. Johnson says: "... at Stage 1, ... we shall be unable to predict what will be said and what shortcomings will be revealed. Hence it will be impossible to prepare in advance the content of Stage 2 & 3 teaching ... (Materials) cease to provide a set of exercises to work through

in prescribed sequence, and become a bank of resources to select from."

This idea seems attractive at first sight, but our approach of having an established syllabus before we started was preferred for the following reasons:

(a) The idea that one cannot predict the sort of gaps that students will have in their repertoire or the sort of performance errors they will make is stated far too strongly. All published courses have to make these predictions, whether implicitly or explicitly, and the risk of teaching something that learners already know is no greater in this approach than in other courses.

(b) There are important practical problems in deciding what "shortcomings" are revealed. Firstly, most teachers will tend to latch onto errors made in areas with which they are familiar, and where they know that remedial materials are easily accessible. Secondly, and more crucially, shortcomings other than actual errors are extremely difficult to spot, and our linguistic analyses at the University of Malaya had shown that the greatest shortcoming was not in the errors made but in the failure to attempt to use appropriate syntactic and

cohesive devices.[9] Thirdly, the procedure limits the contents of Stages 2 & 3 to only those points thrown up in Stage 1. There is no overall shape to the syllabus, no cohesion or development within the syllabus, and every likelihood that as learners attempt to use items "thrown up" in previous lessons, errors will be made again which will require the method to repeat previous lessons (this is precisely the sort of problem which occurs with step-by-step structure-based direct methods which require learners to master one structure before moving on to the next; learners get stuck on one point for so long that they abandon the course).

Our own development of the "Deep-end" shape ensured that we we were able to concentrate not so much on remedial work but on competence-expanding work, work designed to extend the learner's repertoire of resources.

3. Vertical organisation

3.1 The relationship between competence and performance is a difficult one for the course designer. No matter how performance is divided up - whether into "situations", "functions", "semantic areas" or whatever - it is impossible

to predict for any one item what particular language form any particular language user will use. Many text-book writers simply assume that is <u>is</u> possible to map particular areas of competence onto particular areas of performance, and where the target performance is very restricted (e.g. reading mathematics text-books) there may be a certain amount of predictability - at least enough for courses such as the "Nucleus" series to have been highly successful.(10) The evidence, however, suggests that such mapping is impossible.(11)

3.2 In the PACE course, with its commitment to spoken English, it was evident that a conventional approach to the syllabus, based on the categories we had defined in the initial research phase, would quickly degenerate into the "phrase-book" type which is so typical of courses using a notional or situational syllabus ("When making a request, the following phrases will be found useful ..."). We had, therefore, to look for a more imaginative approach to the whole problem, and hold in abeyance our various natural inclinations towards individual kinds of syllabus design. The following is the list of basic assumptions which I drew up for the PACE team as we began to decide what our course was going to look like.

1.1 *There are two sides to planning a syllabus - content and ordering.*

1.2 *The principles on which a syllabus is specified in terms of content are not necessarily those which determine ordering.*

2.1 *Syllabus content specification principles are basically a way of organising experience of the language, in whatever way this may be defined; characteristically, therefore, such specifications have too main thrusts:*

(a) *to set limits, i.e. decide on what is not going to be done;*

(b) *to highlight, i.e. to concentrate on areas which are considered to be most typical, most useful, most productive, most learnable or whatever.*

2.2 *Any division of experience into categories (whether discrete or overlapping) is bound by its nature to introduce distortions. One organising principle differs from another both in the features which it chooses to highlight and those it chooses to omit.*

2.3 *Specifying the content of a language syllabus (i.e what students need to be able to do or need to experience) is likely to be less distorting if the final list of contents is compiled from initial lists of categories thrown up by as many different organising principles as possible. This does not preclude the use of one of the organising*

principles as the final ostensible principle.

3.1 *There are no theoretically justified or empirically observed (beyond the trivial) hierarchical or parallel relationships between the three categorisers situations, functions and linguistic forms.*

3.2 *Ordering of contents is essentially random; there are no convincing theoretical principles for, and no amassed experience of, ordering functions or situations; and, despite received wisdom on the ordering of syllabuses in terms of linguistic complexity, the latter term has little basis in the theory (cp. particularly the negative findings in the 60's/70's series of psycho-linguistic experiments on the derivational theory of complexity) and offers little practical help at the post-intermediate stage.*

3.3 *The eclectic syllabus which I propose has, therefore, no intrinsic internal cohesion, and no intrinsic development. Both these elements are grafted on to the syllabus artificially, the first by creating an environment (the "theme") for each teaching unit, into which a rag-bag of elements from our syllabus contents goes, the second by (a) subjecting the realisations of each content category to a developmental syllabus governed by discourse analysis, and moving from smaller units of discourse to larger ones, and (b) allowing each teaching unit to feed on all earlier teaching units.*

3.4 *In such a syllabus, it is expected that many elements of many categories of all organising principles would be treated cyclically.*

3.3 Following this approach, we eventually had several lists under different headings of the sort of things we thought should be covered in the course. Weaving them all together was a lengthy operation which naturally involved a certain amount of compromise, but this "rag-bag" procedure did ensure that each item in each unit of the course was independently motivated, and not simply something that cropped up in the context of some other categorising feature.(12)

3.4 Although our ideas on syllabus "shape" shifted many times during the actual writing of the course, and we even toyed for a time with the idea of not having any dominant organising principle and no unit titles, we eventually decided that for ease of reference and for identification of both content and shape by students we needed a coherent-looking contents list, which we specified in terms of functions, except for every fifth unit in which we tried to bring all previous functions together in a unit specified in term of situation. A typical progression was: One: Questioning for different purposes; Two: Asking for more precise information; Three: Asking for permission and making requests; Four: Hesitating and evading; Five: The Face-to-face Interview.

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4. Finally, it was suggested earlier that there is no one-to-one correspondence between specific performance events and specific items of competence. Therefore, it was important in our course not only to play down the close connection between the Support section and the other sections that was implied by their inclusion in the same unit, but also to make sure that there was constant reference back to what had gone in earlier units, to make sure that treatment of items was cyclical. In fact, it was predicted (13) before we started piloting that we might find that learners failed to make use of support items in the unit in which they occurred but would make increasing use of them in subsequent units as their usage was assimilated. This prediction seems from our observation and recording of piloting sessions to have been borne out; although students did attempt to use the support items of the unit in the performance section, more natural, consistent and appropriate use was more noticeable in subsequent units.

NOTES :

(1) Quoted in British Council (1978) p.9

(2) See University of Malaya 1979 & 1980, ETIC 1980. Problems with the course are not, however, mentioned in the ETIC collection of papers.

(3) Mead 1984

(4) See, for example, Hall 1983 (a)

(5) e.g. O'Connor 1954

(6) e.g. University of Malaya 1979 & 1980

(7) At that time an unpublished paper. I have not been able in find its subsequent history.

(8) Brumfit (1978)

(9) See Hall 1983 (a)

(10) Bates & Dudley-Evans 1976

(11) See e.g. Beedham & Bloor 1980

(12) See Hall 1983 (b) for criticism of such an approach

(13) By Professor John Sinclair of Birmingham University in conversation.

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SUGGESTED TOPICS AND ACTIVITY TYPES IN BUSINESS ENGLISH FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS

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I SOURCES

In order to develop a teaching program in Business English Communication for EFL learners, teachers should investigate into various available sources for possible material banks to start with. Teachers have to keep their eyes and ears open to both local sources and imported sources. According to my experience, I will divide these sources into 3 categories.

I Textbooks. Textbooks are a major core of material banks. They are the first thing that teachers should seek support from. At least teachers can get orientated towards the business concepts by scanning through these business textbooks. Let me give an example from my experience. Before I get involved in the business English program I never have had any background in Business at all. The only thing I know is how to write business letters plus a couple of business expressions. So when I first start searching for the material I found it most useful when going through the textbooks wherefrom I learn some concepts and get possible topics to start on. The sort of textbooks that is most likely to cover quite a wide range of topics in business includes the textbooks on Marketing, Management, Organization Behavior and Finance. For example Philip Kotler's Marketing Management 1976 (Prentice Hall); Edgar F. Huse and James Bowditch's Behavior in Organizations: A Systems Approach to Managing 1973 (Addison-Wesley); Roger Nelson's Personal Money Management 1973 (Addison-Wesley), these textbooks will provide not only some business concepts but also some case studies of different forms which then can be used for activities in the lesson. Look at this appendix page taken from the Huse & Bowditch's book. (See appendix 1) It provides you with a lot of case studies that can be adapted to the lesson. We at GIBA find that the case studies on "cleaning the tank" is useful for role playing, the "Nasa Moon Survival Task" is useful for group activities.

II Business Magazines and journals. This category is quite large. It embodies international business magazines, local business magazines and journals. Magazines such as Business Review, Far Eastern Economic Review, Fortune International, International Business Week are quite well-known on an international basis. Business in Thailand, Asean Investors are local magazines which are written in English. Journals like Harvard Business Review, Senior Management, and Executive Digest are also useful in different way. The first one is very academic but the last two are not theoretical compared with the Harvard one, they seem to be on the application side. In this category I would like to include the monthly reviews, mid-year and annual reviews, specially issued on business topics by either the newspapers, the banks. For example the Bangkok Bank has its Monthly Review, and the Bangkok Post (English newspaper) has its Mid-Year Economics Review, and End of Year Economics Review. These reviews and reports cover a wide range and current issues in business and econimics Articles on Trade Centers, Banking and Finance, Tourism, Investment, Computer etc are quite comprehensive and nicely-covered. They have all the statistics, charts and the like to support their presentation.

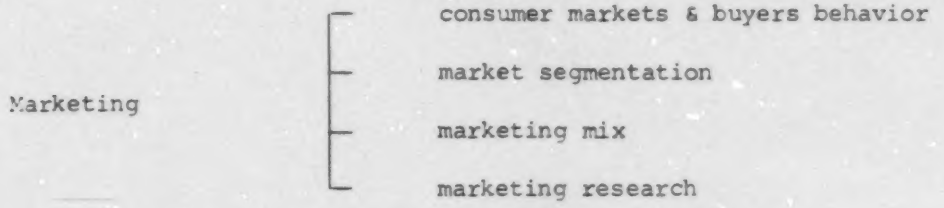
III General Magazines and Newspaper. In magazines such as Times, Newspapers there are always a section on "Economy and Business" or "World Business" which teachers might find interesting. Even in the women's magazines Glamour, for example, there are some interesting article on the business related topics. Besides, the daily English newspapers in Thailand always have a page or a column on Economics and Business

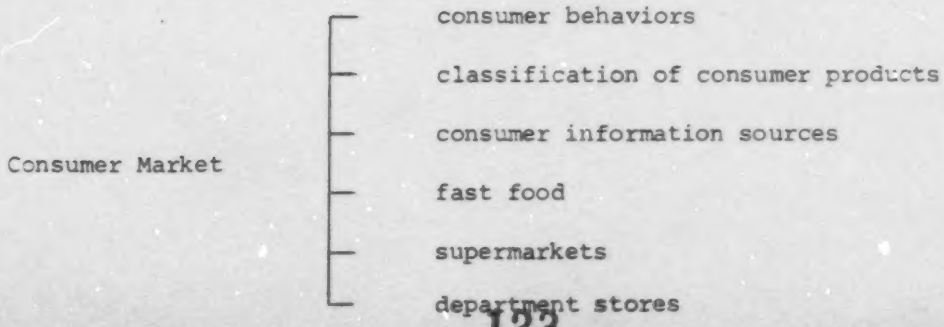
II THEMATIC TOPICS

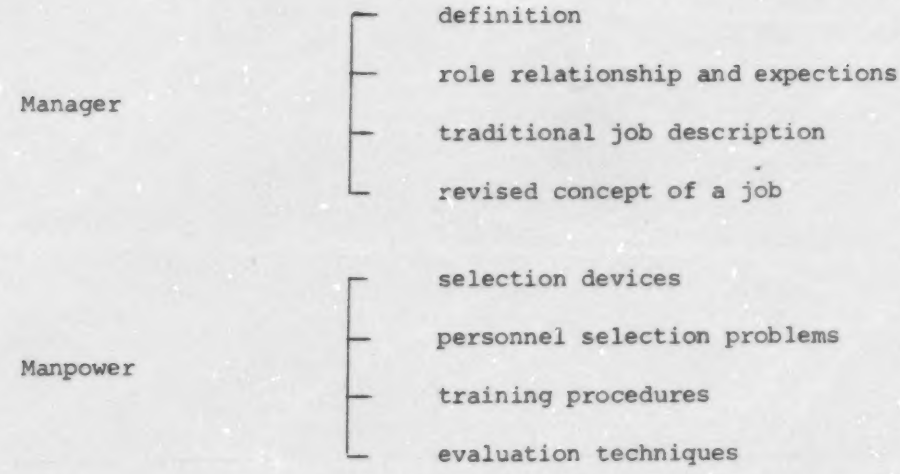
Getting hold of these various sources, the teachers are now ready to select the topics that they can build their lessons/activities upon. A number of b broad topics are recommended because it'll be easier for the teachers to weed a lot of sub-topics into. All the sub-topics should be related to the central topic (When I refer to the topic sub-topic I'm talking about the centent of the lessons). Each topic or 1 unit has a number of exercises or tasks for students to work on. The average length of each unit is about 10 hours. The following are possible thematic topics that can be used for the program

- Manager
- Leadership
- Advertising
- Tourism Industry
- Computer
- Motivation
- Marketing
- Consumer Market
- Banking
- Budgeting
- Finance
- Manpower

Take 'Marketing' for example it is a broad term so in the unit, we can incorporate something like "Consumer markets and buyer behavior", "market segmentation", "marketing mix" and "marketing research". Or name the unit "Consumer Market" or "Consumerism" and anything about fast food, department store, supermarkets, consumer behaviors, classification of consumer products, consumer information sources. Or take the unit on "Manager" you can discuss the definition of a manager, the role relationships and expectations of a manager, the traditional job description of a manager and a revised concept of a manager's job.







If we want to do a unit on "manpower" we can include topics like selection devices namely resume, interview, application and bio-data, psychological tests or assessment center and reference-checking; types of problem in personnel selection; training which includes types of complex learning, types of training procedures, evaluation techniques etc. By skimming through the Table of Contents of the textbooks we will have a rough idea about which topics and which message can be included.

III TYPES OF TEACHING ACTIVITIES

1. Warm-up activities. At the beginning of a new unit there should be a warm-up activity of some kind in order to prepare the students for the lesson. Warm-up activities should be something fairly simple and easy to do so that the students won't feel discouraged from the outstart. We can have the students skim quickly through the reading text and then check the given statements whether they are true or false. Or giving them the topic first then give a number of statements, ten for example, and then let them check in front of the statements that they anticipate their reading or listening from the lecture will discuss. If the teacher would like to have an oral activity for the warm-up, the teacher can present the student with the situation which calls for some sort of decision and discussion on the part of the students in pair or in small group. Let's take a look at the examples. (See Appendix 2-3-4)

2. Integrated Activities. The activities in each unit interweave all 4 language skills. Each task or activity require the students to make use both of their productive and receptive skills. For example in one task the students have to listen, then write the notes, and be able to reproduce the message orally. However, each activity will have one main focus. For example the focus of one exercise is "report writing". But the means to achieve this "end product" might involve the students' listening lecture or reading followed by their discussion of the essential points derived from either the listening or reading before they each start to write their own report.

   A number of useful activities that we at GIBA : Dr. Richard Mead, Mr. Kenneth Pas and I used are discussed as follows.

1. Interviewing. This activity can be used if the teacher'd like to focus on the oral production of the students. It is a pair activity and calls for everybody's involvement. And the students can go round interviewing a new person, thus forming a new pair as soon as he finishes with his old partner. The teacher's job is to set up a situation whereby the interviewing activity can fit in nicely. Here is an example (In the Unit "manager") "Interview a manager and get his definition of a manager's job. Does this agree with the definition given in the text? If not, what do you think makes the difference?

Here is another example

BUDGETING

Exercise One.

Conduct a two-part survey among (1) at least three of your single friends; and (2) at least three of your married friends.

* Do they budget? If not, do they feel that a personal spending plan would be helpful to them?
* Among the budgeters, which are most successful in reaching their objectives? Why? Least successful? Why?
* Write a report on your surveey, with your conclusions, and the comments of those interviewed.

2. Developing arguments and discussion. This activity can be an end in itself or a means to some other activities. It involves the interaction among the students either in pair or in group. There are 2 ways for the teachers to generate the atmosphere for the students to develop arguments and generate discussion : first, by means of giving them a written situation and second by exposing them to some films, videos or the like which portrays the points that teachers would like to direct the discussion to. For example look at the activity below. The students can discuss the possibility of opening a new branch of department store. They have to argue the pros and cons and all the factors involved before they make a decision.

Supposing you are the owner of Central Department Store you want to expand your business by, opening more branches. There are various spaces available. Consider for each location whether it's worth opening or not by using all the information provide below

I.	Location	:	Victory Movement area
	Density of population	:	30,000
	Purchasing power	:	mainly middle class
	Geographical	:	lot of buses pass, central area
	Convenience		
	other features	:	Robinson department store is already there
II.	Location	:	Klong Toey
	Density of population	:	100,000
	Purchasing power	:	mainly low class
	Geographical	:	slum area where the poor live
	Convenience		
	other features	:	no big department store yet.
III.	Location	:	Klongprapa area
	Density of population	:	80,000
	Purchasing power	:	middle and lower class
	other features	:	crowded with townhouse and apartment units

Another example from the "advertising unit" is that we have a video tape of commercial advertisements from the U.S. Before we let the students see the video we already prepare them for the concepts portrayed in the video. After they see the commercial ads from the video they have to discuss which characteristics each ad. portray, how convincing and how effective they are, and discuss some strong and weak points for each ad.

Example

pairs : The following are characteristics common to many television advertisements

1. Early Product Identification: the product is introduced early in the advertisement.
2. High Repetition: the product name is repeated frequently throughout the ad.
3. Novelty: something about the ad attracts you because it is new and different.
4. Encouragement both visual and semantic images: the ad should use both language and visual impact to convey the message and encourage you to buy the product.
5. Direction of people to specific address(es): the ad should quickly indicate the type of place you can buy the product.
6. Music association: the background music should reinforce and complement the product's image.

1. First discuss them with your friend which characteristics are present in the ads that you see.
2. Check with another pair that you have the same understanding of what these characteristics mean. Can you think of any television advertisements which illustrate them?
3. Watch the advertisements, and decide which characteristics are exemplified by each. (Warning: at the end of today's class you will be asked which advertisement you thought was most effective and which least effective; and you will have to explain your decision.)
4. Which two characteristics contribute most to making an advertisement effective? Write a short report explaining your reasons.
5. The teacher will ask some of you to read your reports to the class.

3. Role-Playing. Another activity that the students can use their imagination by portraying the role of someone else besides themseves can be fun. The teacher should provide the situation and the description of roles. This example is taken from our "budgeting unit" The students have to play the roles of people of different careers. They have different expectations, different goals in their life; thus have their own way of spending the money. Each student has to find out what type of budgeting the person of each role uses. (see appendix 5)

4. Story-Telling. This is another activity to wrap up the reading assignment, the case study, the film or even the listening lecture. The activity itself calls for everybody's participation in the class. The teacher will ask each student to take turn telling the story that they have just read or seen or listened. The first student begins the story, the second adds more information and its goes on and on till the last student who ends the story. In the case that there are fewer students and the points to be made are many, there can be a second round or a third round.

5. Strip-Telling. This is a reproduction of a listening activity. That is to say the students have to listen to a lecture, a talk and take notes. After that, the teacher will give each student a strip. Each strip contains one piece of information in the story, may be one paragraph or two. The students have to rearrange the strips in order, so as to be able to reproduce the whole lecture. This is an activity that students have to pay attention to the connection of discourses the signal words, and any other clues that join one idea to another. This activity can be made harder. That is to follow the same step as above but when the teacher gives the strip to the students, the information in the each strip is not exactly the same as that in the lecture. The information in each is a parallel to the information in the lecture. The job of the student is double here. That is to transfer the message of the first lecture to the second situation and then to reorganize the message in an appropriate order like the model provided in the lecture.

6. Diagramming and Outlining. In the reading or listening activity, besides having the students answer the questions in traditional way for example checking true or false, using multiple choice answers: a, b, c, d. The teacher can generate an activity in making diagrams, outlines to ask for the students' comprehension of the reading or listening. For an easier task the teacher can provide a ready-made outline. The students have to fill in only the information as in the outlines given below.

Turn on the tape portion number and answer what the 5 main reasons for such a big public response to supermarkets or department stores are by filling in the outline form below:

1. _____

   1.1 _____

2. _____

   2.1 _____

   2.2 _____

   2.3 _____

3. _____

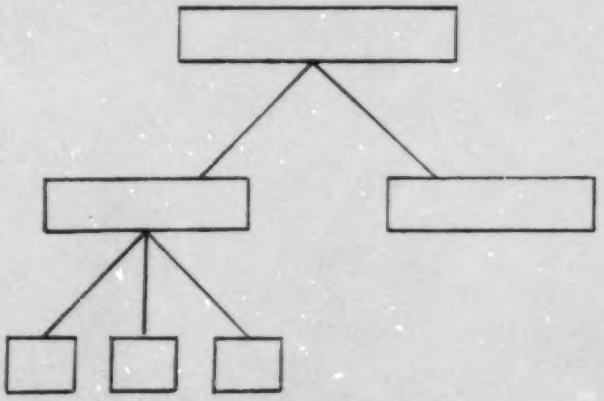
4. _____

5. _____

Or as in the guided diagram:

TASK 4.

a. Complete the following diagram from the information given in section 2 (Social Characteristics of the Consumer Market).



If the teacher would like to make the task more difficult he might not give any clue at all. The students have to come up with the information themselves.

7. Gap-Filling. Gap-filling technique can be used both in the activity that calls for comprehension whether in reading or listening. The students have to supply the topic, the title along with certain words in that particular passage. This activity needs no elaborations since it is very common to all.

8. Matching Information. This activity is quite simple and can be used both with the reading and listening tasks. In reading, for example, the teachers can have the students read the description of certain concepts and then have them match the illustrations given in a random order. There is an example from our unit on "motivation". The students are to read some concepts about 'expectancy theory' are 3 concepts about this theory. After reading the concepts they have to match the exemplifacition paragraph (Given in the right hand-side column.) with an appropriate explanation of the concept.

12

Example of Matching Information

TASK 3. Read the three concepts about "expectancy theory." Note that parts A, B and C are not in their proper order

THE THEORY

Three concepts serve as the key building blocks of the theory:

(1) *Performance-outcome expectancy.* Every behavior has associated with it, in an individual's mind, certain outcomes (rewards or punishments). In other words, the individual believes or expects that if he or she behaves in a certain way, he or she will get certain things.

(Insert either A, B or C here.)

A. For example, you may have a strong expectancy that if you put forth the effort, you can produce ten units an hour, but that you have only a fifty-fifty chance of producing fifteen units an hour if you try.

(2) *Valence.* Each outcome has a "valence" (value, worth, attractiveness) to a specific individual. Outcomes have different valences for for different individuals. This comes about because valences result from individual needs and percept tions, which differ because they in turn reflect other factors in the individual's life.

(Insert either A, B or C here.)

B. Examples of expectancies can easily be described. An individual may have an expectancy that if he produces ten units he will receive his normal hourly rate while if he produces fifteen units he will receive his hourly pay rate plus a bonus. Similarly an individual may believe that certain levels of performance will lead to approval or disapproval from members of her work group or from her supervisor. Each performance can be seen as leading to a number of different kinds of outcomes and outcomes can differ in their types.

(3) *Effort-performance expectancy.* Each behavior also has associated with it in the individual's mind a certain expectancy or probability of success. This expectancy represents the individual's perception of how hard it will be to achieve such behavior and the probability of his or her successful achievement of that behavior.

(Insert A, B or C here.)

C. For example, some individuals may value an opportunity for promotion or advancement because of their needs for achievement or power, while others may not want to be promoted and leave their current work group because of needs for affiliation with others. Similarly, a fringe benefit such as a pension plan may have great valence for an older worker but little valence for a young employee on his first job.

Or in the listening, after we let the students see the film on theory Z we spell out the characteristics of the American companies and the Japanese companies for them so that they can match each characteristic under the right companies :

Put the following contrasting characteristics under either "the Japanese Organizations" or "the American Organizations".

1. Wholistic Concern VS Segmented Concern
2. Collective Decision Making VS Individual Decision Making
3. Short-term Employment VS Lifetime Employment
4. Specialized Career Paths VS Non-specialized paths
5. Slow Evaluation and Promotion VS Rapid Evaluation and Promotion
6. Explicit Control Mechanisms VS Implicit Control Mechanisms
7. Collective Responsibility VS Individual Responsibility

Japanese	American
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

This activity can both be a means to an end or be an end in itself. To check for the students comprehension in various details and putting them in a well-organized form, the teacher will have the students summarize the information from their reading by putting them under appropriate check-list. Take a look at the example here

TASK (8)

a. On the following table list the characteristics of the condominiums in the Sukhumvit area according to the categories indicated.

	Units	Storeys	Facilities	Price	Terms of payment	Builder	Financial supporter	Special advantage
Siam Penthouse I & II								
Taiping Towers								
Grandville House II								
Baan Prida								
Eden								
Prasanmittra								

To illustrate that this activity can be a means to another activity, after classifying the information under the proper heading, the students have to write a paragraph that makes use of this classifying check-list as a guide.

Writing

1. On the following table put under the features of the supermarkets department stores that are mentioned or discussed in the 3 interviews.

	Cathay	Central	Foodland
1. Growth in Department or Supermarket			
2. Reasons for being popular			
3. Public's purchasing power			
4. Comparison between downtown store and surburban store			
5. Criteria used when open a new branch			
6. The future of business (department/ supermarket)			
7. Problems			

2. a Divide the students into 3 groups.
   b Each group is responsible for 1 store
   (group 1 Cathay
   group 2 Central
   group 3 Foodland)
   c Let each group write a paragraph of 150-200 words describing his store using the checklist in #1 as a guide.

9. Sharing Information. To strengthen the group participation, the teacher can devise an activity that requires bits of information from each of the students. All the information given by each student will be added together to form the whole piece. Let me give an example of how this can be done. Each student will be given a small page (or paragraph) of information. He should be responsible to read, understand the information in his bit and be able to explain or summarize the information to other students. Then each student goes round and exchange information. So in the end they will have a complete concept filled together. To help the students, the teacher can provide the guideline in an outlining form telling them how many topics or sub-topics there are.

Example Workbook page

1. Read the short text that you are given. Make sure you understand it.

2. Look at the outline below.

Creative Strategy

1. Message Content
   a.
   b.
2. Motivational Devices
   a.
   b.
3. Spokesperson Selection
   a.
   b.

3. Decide which heading your text discusses. Write a subheading at a. under the appropriate heading.

4. Write a short summary of your text.

5. The teacher will take your text away.

6. Go round to other pairs: ask each pair to explain
   i. which heading their text discusses
   ii. what subheading they have written.

7. Ask for a verbal summary of the information give in the text so that you can check whether you agree with the proposed subheading. But do not read the written summary.

8. When you have talked to all other pairs you should understand what the complete text tells you. In the next exercise you will have a chance to test your understanding when you see seven more advertisements.

Student pages . Each student gets only 1 strip of information

The information conveyed in a message should distinguish a product from competing products on dimensions important to consumers. There are two elements to be considered under the message content. First the message thoughts should have "utility" to a person. That is, they should recall related concepts to the mind of the person. In this way a person can grasp the new message by relating it to previously learned concepts.

Second the message should not activate any negative thoughts already stored in the person's long term memory. For example, in its advertising an airline company should never cause a potential consumer to think about previous plane crashes. This is why most airline ads stress service, comfort and the proven safety record of air travel.

Humorous Appeals

Some form of humor is used in more than half of the commercials aired on television. And the available evidence suggests that humor is an effective device for gaining attention.

To enhance the persuasiveness of humorous appeals, several guidelines should be followed. Most important is that the humor communicates the message. When it does not, humor may induce attention and learning of information that is not important to promoting the product. Commercial recall may be substantial, but information that is relevant to motivating purchase is not available.

Humor should be focused on the product and not the user. Making the product user the object of the joke may created a negative attitude. If it is not possible to focus humor on the product, then it is preferable to make nonusers of the product rather than users the object of the humor.

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Threat Appeals

From everyday experience, it might be expected that threat would be an effective means of persuasion. Warning to children such as "don't touch the hot stove you will get burned" seem to be influential without much repetition. Threat appeals should focus on helping people recognize a danger and cope with it. This type of information is likely to be used in changing a person's habits. For example, in many countries, government health departments run TV ads explaining the dangers of cigarette smoking in an attempt to change people's smoking habits.

Comparative Advertising

Comparative advertising involves stressing the attributes of a firm's brand as against those of a competitor's brands. Some advertisers, such as 7up in the late 1960s and Pepsi in the early 1980s, have found that comparative advertising is in reality free advertising for competitors. Moreover, there is also a concern that comparative advertising may lead consumers to develop a negative attitude to both brands.

From the point of view of conveying information, it would seem appropriate to use comparative advertising, but only under special circumstances, comparative advertising is useful when a firm's brand at the same category address in memory as the leading brand. In effect, it places a firm's brand alongside the leading brand in the consumer's memory. But if a nonleading brand is to invite comparison, it must prove itself supervisor on some characteristics important to consumers. Pepsi and 7up were able to do this on the flavor dimension.

Selecting Spokespeople

Advertisers frequently use spokespeople to deliver their messages. In some instances, spokespeople are selected because they are attractive; that is, they are dynamic, likeable or of high status. In other situations, communicators who are credible are hired as spokespeople. Credibility refers to the extent to which a person is expert and trustworthy. Let's consider this one by one.

Attractive Sources

Celebrities are often used as spokespeople. Rod Stewart and Steve Davis promote Kloster Beer. Such attractive spokespeople enhance advertising recall. This effect is probably because of the fact that message receivers are attracted to celebrities. However, recall of the celebrity in advertising often confuses the sales message. In effect, the celebrity interferes with the ad's message and thus may prevent persuasion.

If celebrities are to be used as spokespeople, caution is necessary in selecting them. Celebrities are likely to be effective spokespeople when they personify a key product attribute. Rod Stewart is an appropriate spokesperson for Kloster Beer because he personifies good times, parties, and excitement. Steve Davis is an appropriate spokesman for a different sector of the target market. He personifies skills and accomplishment.

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Credible Sources

A less frequently used approach is to use spokespeople who are credible. Although expert sources are not difficult to find, ones who are expert and trustworthy are rare. This is because consumers perceive people who serve as spokespeople to be acting in their own interests; they are being paid to say favorable things about a product. One way to overcome this problem is to use spokespeople whose integrity is unquestioned. For example, CHIN SOPHONPANICH's name is used to promote financial services. He is known to be one of Thailand richest men, people believed he would not compromise his integrity by communicating inaccurate information.

Spokesperson credibility may also be achieved by using consumer testimonials. People who are like those in the target are often viewed as credible sources. This is particularly the case when the testimonials are spontaneous. Tylenol, for example, uses testimonials recorded by a hidden camera in advertising its pain reliever. Pepsi Cola uses blind taste tests in which consumers choose between Coke and Pepsi to enhance credibility of their appeal.

Actors too may be viewed as credible spokespeople. Typically credibility is achieved by portraying the actor as a person who does not like the product category but who promotes the advertised product. For example, Rod Stewart does not like to drink beer very much. However, he does like Kloster Beer and has made an advertisement for Kloster.

Recently, advertisers have created another strategy to insure spokesperson credibility. It involves using a top corporate officer to deliver the appeal. Eastern Airlines' advertising is delivered by Frank Borman who used to be an astronaut and is now president of the airline. The belief is that these people have integrity because of the office they hold.

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10. Notes Reconstruction. Whether the students read or listen, one thing that can help them in comprehending the message, retaining the message and recalling the message is by means of taking notes. Taken from this point, the teachers can design an oral or written activity. Using the students notes as a guide teachers can ask the students to resproduce the paragraph in terms of oral presentation or in a piece of writing. Here is an example, notice that the notes given are not in a grammatical sentence. Students have to fill in the omitted information first or select the right alternatives and then reconstruct them into a well-organized coherent passage. Besides giving the clues in the notes form the teacher can also give the clues by means of sequential questions. The students have to answer the questions before reconstructing the answers in a coherent passage.

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Example of giving clues in the form of sequential questions

The Threatening Corridor

I Answer the following questions.

1. What are the three traditional media methods?

   .....

2. According to the president, what is the most effective and up-dated way to transmit messages to employees?

   .....

3. What is an interesting practice that Myers discovered?

   .....

4. - What did Myers suggest to the President?
   - What was the president's answer?
   - Why did the president give such a negative answer?
   - What was the usual practice for top officers regarding coffee breaks?

   .....

5. What was the result of Myers' first try-out?

   .....

6. What 2 reasons did Myers see for the failure?

   .....

7. Describe the situation after the second try out?

   .....

8. What was the conclusion?

   .....

II Using these guided questions and your answer as your notes, give an oral summary of the story.

11. Group Consensus Activity In business there are a lot of time that the situation calls for some kind of decision. Decision making can involve an individual, a small group of people, or everybody in the company in case the company follows the Japanese decision-making process. An activity can be devised to imitate this decision-making process. The activity will involve a lot of arguing, defending, justifying, explaining, persuading, compromising etc. in order to reach a group consensus. The group can be very active and agressive while they are reading the group consensus. (Explain the Nasa Moon activity for an example).

12. Problem-solving This activity can be done in pair or in group. The students are given a case study, or other business situations that require the solution. For example this is the case study that students can read and then discuss the possibilities of the solutions.

CASE 1

Richard L. Cushman is a freshman at a junior college. He is currently taking 8 credit hours of course work and working 32 hours a week. His parents are paying for all his college expenses, and he is living at home. His take-home earnings are $39.04 each week. The Cushman family has two cars-a new Mercury, which Mr. Cushman drives to work and which is off limits to Richard and a 1961 Plymouth that is driven mostly by Richard and occasionally by Mrs. Cushman. Richard has $85 in savings and has decided to buy a new Ford Mustang. He believes he has ample earnings to support it. He can get the car for only $300 down, and the dealer has indicated that he can get a 48-month loan at 7½ percent discount interest. Richard plans to borrow the balance of his down-payment from his father, that is if he can convince Mr. Cushman that the purchase is a good idea.

a) Based on the data supplied there, , can Richard afford to own the car he proposes buying?
b) Do you think Richard has considered all the costs involved in owning and operating the car?
c) What do you think about the financial arrangements for buying the car? About how much interest will he end up paying?
d) What would be your recommendations to Richard if you were to have the opportunity to be his financial counselor?

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Another kind of problem-solving that is used is what we call "a maze". In this maze, each student has to solve the problem on his own. First the situation will be presented and then it will asks the reader (student) to make decision on the solution. After going thru this solution, the consequence will follow which in turn calls for another solution and it goes on and on till the reader feels that he is now satisfied with his decision and reaches the end of the maze. At a certain point the reader (student) has to review his decision and select from other alternatives because he won't be able to find any way out if he still sticks to his former decision.

13. Simulation This activity is role-playing in a larger scale and requires a lot on the part of the students. Because most of the time the students will handle the activities, progressing through the steps on their own even though the guideline, the rules are explicitly given. This is another good activity for group as a whole because everybody in the class will be assigned a role to play. And it needs full co-operation and participation among the class members. The students should be quite advanced or else the activity will be a failure because they couldn't follow the steps and don't know what they should be doing.

The simulation is like putting the real business situation into the classroom whereby a lot of different activities are going on and some consequences are derived because of certain decisions. I have seen a number of commercial textbooks that provide this simulation situation and they can be adapted to use in the classroom.

Books like

Factions and Fictions by Michael Lamb Pergamon Press, Oxford 1982

English for Negotiating by Jim Brims, E.J. Arnold & Son, Leeds 1982

The Language of Discussions by Frank Heyworth, Hodder and Stoughton Ltd. 1978 are a good start if teachers are looking for the situations and guideline to plan their simulation.

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APPENDIX 1

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APPENDIX 2

TASK 1.

a. Skim read the text, paying particular attention to

1. the title, subtitles, headings, subheadings.
2. pictures, diagrams, graphs.
3. caption, and everything in learning in dark or large print.

b. Now answer these questions.

1. About how many condominiums are mentioned altogether?
2. Can you remember any of their names?

_____

3. Can you remember any of their locations?

_____

4. How does the writer classify the condominiums?
   - According to their functions
   - According to their locations
   - According to their price
   - According to their owners
   - All of the above
   - None of the above.

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APPENDIX 3

TASK 1.

a. Here are the five main functions that all managers perform. Read them and then match them with the appropriate explanations given below.

Controlling
Staffing
Planning
Leading
Organizing

_____ Establishing goals and standards; developing rules and procedures; developing plans (both for yourself and for those who work for you); forecasting--predicting or projecting some future occurrence.

_____ Giving each subordinate a separate task; establishing departments; delegating authority to subordinates; establishing channels of authority and communication; coordinating the work of your subordinates.

_____ Determining what type of people should be hired; recruiting prospective employees; selecting employees; setting performance standards; evaluating performance; training and developing employees.

_____ Getting others to get the job done; maintaining morale; motivating subordinates; establishing the right psychological climate.

_____ Setting standards--such as sales quotas, quality standards, or production levels; checking to see how actual performance compares with these standards; taking corrective action as needed.

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APPENDIX 4

TASK 1.

a. You have 3 minutes in which to skim the text. Underline those phrases that you think are most important.

b. Which of the following topics do you think a detailed reading of the text will tell you more about? Rewrite those you choose as questions in forms that will give you most information.

1. The youth market.
2. Objects of organization.
3. International markets.
4. Durable goods.
5. Motives for purchase.
6. Competition from the government.
7. House-hold equipment.

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APPENDIX 5

BUDGET SURVEY

Name ..... Age .....

Married/Single

Job .....

Average Monthly Salary (after taxes) .....Baht

Monthly Expenditures

Item	How much
1. Food.	.....
2. Housing (Including electricity, water, telephone)	.....
3. Clothing/Personal Care	.....
4. Transportation	.....
5. Entertainment	.....
6. Medical Care	.....
7. Savings	.....
8. Miscellaneous	.....

Directions: First carefully read your role card and then work out your monthly budget. You will have to use some imagination !

When you are ready, begin to fill in the survey sheet for the one person you will interview.

Study the following interview procedure:

Role 1 ⟶ Role 4 ⟶ Role 2 ⟶ Role 5 ⟶ Role 3 ⟶ Role 1

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POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE TERMS IN ENGLISH

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Positive and Negative Terms in English

by

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In teaching English to foreign business persons and journalists special attention must be paid to positive and negative terms describing the same action, condition, etc. Positive/negative does not mean exact opposites such as *good/bad, fresh/rotten, quality/shoddy,* nor does it include slang, *cop-out/failure to commit oneself* , *kick the bucket/die* , nor euphemisms, e.g. *pass away/die, powder-room/toilet, Rubenesque/obese* , *sanitation engineer/garbage collector.* Excluded are also vulgarities, *fart/flatus, piss/urinate,* and sexist, racist, ethnic and religious slurs, e.g. *hunk* or *stud/man, broads/women, honky/white, jungle bunny/black, goy/Gentile, kike/Jew, nip/Japanese,* and pejorative terms, such as *grease monkey/mechanic, hick/rural person.* Positive/negative also does not mean an optimistic versus a pessimistic outlook, e.g. *my glass is half full/ my glass is half empty* .

Positive/negative does not apply to common versus anthropological ethnic terms, even if the former are based on a misnomer, or let one characteristic of a people be the basis of the name of all the people. It seems that most ethnic groups do not mind such terms, nor do the majority groups who call them by that name. It is mainly the new or radical anthropologists who are offended and insist upon a change in usage. The radical

anthropologist might render the sentence: Pygmies live in huts as The Mbuti live in small houses. Pygmy coming from the Latin pygmaeus and Greek pygmaiôs meaning 'dwarfish; a small measure', is to be considered offensive. Pygmies of the Ituri Forest call themselves Mbuti. (1) The word hut is supposedly pejorative and should be replaced by little house. Further the anthropologists have substituted Native American for the misnomer Indian, and Inuit meaning 'people' for Eskimo meaning 'eater of raw flesh'.

What is meant by positive/negative is two different ways of conceptualizing and describing the same condition or occurrence, a positive way to describe our actions or characteristics, a negative way to express those of our opponents, e.g. we are open and frank, they are blunt and brash; we are innovative, they are bizarre; we are tenacious and persevering, they are stubborn, obstinate and obdurate. When we act on short notice, we improvise; when they do the same, they are impulsive.

Politicians in particular love to catagorize things in a positive/negative manner, e.g. for information and truth we have an agency which promotes public relations, the Soviet equivalent is the ministry of propaganda; when we attack first it is a pre-emptive strike, when they attack first it is naked agression; we have mutual agreements with our allies, our opponents resort to conspiracy; if we hit them with a blitzkrieg it is a surprise attack, if they hit us first it is a sneak attack; if we kill many of them we inflict high casualities, on the other hand, if many of us are killed it is a

massacre or a slaughter. From any historical marker in America which has the heading massacre one knows immediately the Indians won and the whites lost. When we transact business or political negotiations we are discreet and confidential but the others are sneeky and secretive. Our marines with their esprit d'corps are dedicated and loyal. Japanese troups, who perhaps showed even more spirit, were fanatic. Our marines never retreat, they are merely redeployed. Those countries which help us are our allies, those helping the Soviets are satellites and stooges. Our commandos are brave, courageous, perhaps even daring, theirs are simply reckless, foolhardy, and suicidal. European conscripts who refuse to serve in the army are antimilitarists, ours are called draft dodgers. Our leaders may be great strategists and tacticians, theirs are crafty. We are enthusiasts, they are zealots. We manage to convince and convert people, they resort to brainwashing. Occasionally our conceptions are tripartite: our combatants are peace keepers, those of our friends are freedom fighters, whereas our enemies are terrorists.

Although journalists writing under totalitarian regimes may not have a choice as to which terms, i.e. positive or negative, they may use, those journalists writing where there is relative freedom of the press should be well aware of their choice of words. The correct application of these terms is not only important for journalists, but also for those working for the foreign service, and businesspeople.

It is clearly to the advantage of businesspeople to point

out that their product has a marble effect while the competition's products are discolored; that their sales representatives are assertive while others are agressive and pushy; that their office personel are precise and not picky or pedantic; that their company is time-honored, while the competition is old-fashioned; that our pipes are contoured and angled, while their pipes are crooked and bent; that our manager has a few idiosyncrasies, their manager has numerous faults. Further, our cost-accountant is thrifty, theirs is cheap and stingy. Our sales representatives may be unorthodox and unconventional but theirs are neurotic and insane. Our maitre d'hôtel is suave, theirs is slick. We make courageous decisions, they make rash ones. While we are flexible, they are opportunistic.

Some of these terms have been in English for some time, others are relatively new, thus it is important for students to work with current topics and not out-dated dictionaries. Freedom fighter, for example, was coined in 1942 in a poem by John Lehmann.(2) Some terms may have become a permanent part of the English vocabulary, while others may be just a passing fad. This in and of itself is nothing new. Horace in his Ars Poetica writes: "Many terms that have fallen out of use shall be born again, and those shall fall that are now in repute, if Usage so will it, in whose hands lies the judgement, the right and the rule of speech."(3)

The use of positive and negative terms is also not new. In the Rhetorica Herennium written about the first centuary A.D. the author states:"There are three types of Statement of Facts.

It is one type when we set forth the facts and turn every detail to our advantage so as to win the victory."(4) The author further states that "...Sulpicius had opposed his veto to the recall of the exiles...; later he changed his mind, and proposing the same law, said he was offering a different proposal, because he had changed the name. For, he said, he was recalling not 'exiles' but 'those ejected by violence'..."(5)

Illustrative instructions in the use of positive/negative terms are also given: "Again, if it is at all possible, we shall show that what our opponent calls justice is cowardice, and sloth, and perverse generosity; what he has called wisdom we shall term impertinent, babbling, and offensive cleverness; what he declares to be temperance we shall declare to be inaction and lax indifference; what he has named courage we shall term the reckless temerity of a gladiator. "(6)

With the choice of a myriad ways to express actions either favorably or unfavorably, students of English as a Foreign Language must be taught to differentiate between these positive and negative terms. Expressions could be taught in pairs or sets, then applied by having students write two paragraphs, one describing actions in a favorable light, and a parallel paragraph relating the same information in an unfavorable light. The goal should not be to teach creative poison pen writing or somewhat more subtle forms of slander and distortion, but to enable students perfecting their English to recognize positive and negative terms for what they are and to make a propitious use of vocabulary.

1 Colin M. Turnbull, The Mbuti Pygmies: Change and Adaption (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1983), p.1.

2 William Safire, Safire's Political Dictionary, enlarged edition (New York: Random House, 1978), p. 720.

3 Horace, Ars Poetica, trans. H.R.Fairclough, The Loeb Classical Library (1929; rpt. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1966), p.457.

4 Harry Caplan, trans., Rhetorica Herennium, The Loeb Classical Library (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1954), p.23.

5 ibid., p.141.

6 ibid., pp. 167-168.